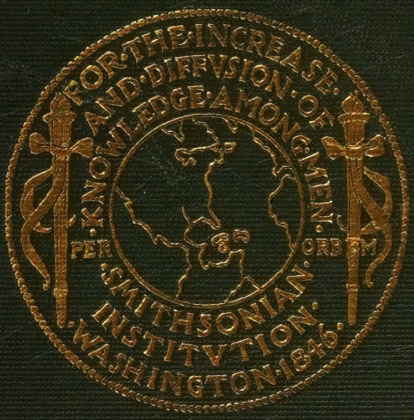
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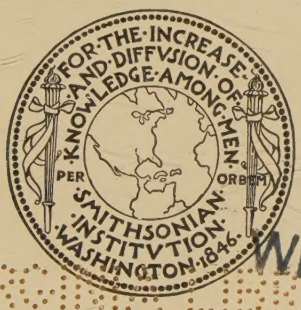
FOR THE

YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1904.

REPORT

OF THE

U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM.



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REPORT

OF THE

U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM,

UNDER THE DIRECTION OF

THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION,

FOR

THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1904.

1903/04

REPORT OF THE U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1904.

SUBJECTS.

I. Report of the Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, with Appendices.

II. Papers describing and illustrating Collections in the U. S. National Museum.

UNITED STATES NATIONAL MUSEUM,
UNDER DIRECTION OF THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION,
Washington, October 1, 1904.

SIR: I have the honor to submit herewith a report upon the present condition of the United States National Museum, and upon the work accomplished in its various departments during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904.

Very respectfully,

RICHARD RATHBUN,
Assistant Secretary, in charge of the U. S. National Museum.

Mr. S. P. LANGLEY,
Secretary, Smithsonian Institution.

CONTENTS.

	Page
Subjects	v
Letter of Transmittal	vii
Contents	ix
List of Illustrations	xi

PART I.

Report of the Assistant Secretary.

General Considerations.

As a museum of record	7
As a museum of research	9
As an educational museum	10
The new museum building	12
Growth and needs of the museum	13

Summary of the Operations of the Year.

Appropriations and expenditures	21
Buildings	22
Additions to the collections	25
General work upon the collections	33
The exhibition collections	36
Researches	38
Explorations	44
Distribution and exchange of specimens	46
Visitors	47
Meetings and lectures	48
Correspondence	49
Publications	49
Library	52
Photography	52
Cooperation of the Executive Departments of the Government	53
Expositions	53
International Congresses	55
Organization and staff	55
Necrology	56

Reports of Head Curators.

Report on the Department of Anthropology for the year 1903–4	61
Gifts	61
Purchases	63
Exchanges	64
Transfers and loans	64
Explorations	66

Report on the Department of Anthropology for the year 1903–4—Continued. Page.
Care of the collections 66
Exhibition and study series 68
Installation 68
Models and replicas 69
Researches 70
Plans for future development 72
Changes in the department 74
Report on the Department of Biology for the year 1903–4 77
Exhibition collections 78
Explorations 79
Accessions 79
Work on the study series 86
Cooperation of specialists and loan of collections 89
Distribution of surplus material 90
Laboratory use of the collections by investigators 90
Scientific researches and investigations 91
Personnel 94
Report on the Department of Geology for the year 1903–4 97
Accessions 97
Division of Geology 97
Division of Mineralogy 98
Invertebrate Paleontology 99
Vertebrate Paleontology 100
Paleobotany 100
Routine 100
Assistance to individuals and institutions 102
Present condition of the collections 103
Research 104
Changes in personnel 104

APPENDICES.

I. The Museum staff 105
II. List of accessions 107
III. Bibliography 157
IV. Report of Charles Schuchert, delegate of the Smithsonian Institution and United States National Museum to the Ninth International Geological Congress, held at Vienna, Austria, August 20–27, 1903 185

PART II.

PAPERS DESCRIBING AND ILLUSTRATING COLLECTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES NATIONAL MUSEUM.

Contributions to the history of American geology. By George P. Merrill 189
The S. S. Howland collection of Buddhist religious art in the National Museum. By Immanuel M. Casanowicz 735
Flint implements of the Fayum, Egypt. By Heywood Walter Seton-Karr ... 745

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

Contributions to the History of American Geology.

By George P. Merrill.

Facing page.

1. Maclure's Geological Map of the United States. Reduced from original in Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, VI, Pt. 2, 1809 189
2. Portrait of Benjamin Silliman, professor of chemistry, Yale College. From a steel engraving by W. G. Jackman (D. Appleton & Co.) 215
3. Portrait of William Maclure, president of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences. (After T. Sully.) Engaved by D. C. Hinman 218
4. Portrait of Parker Cleaveland, professor of chemistry and mineralogy, Bowdoin College. (After T. Badger.) Engraved by J. C. Buttre 226
5. Maclure's Section across the Appalachians (colored). Reduced from original in Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, 1818 228
6. Portrait of Amos Eaton, professor of natural science, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XXXVIII, 1890 234
7. Eaton's Geological Segments. From Index to Geology of Northern States, 1820 251
8. Portrait of Ebenezer Emmons, State geologist of North Carolina. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLVIII, 1896 281
9. Portrait of Gerard Troost, State geologist of Tennessee. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLV, 1894 283
10. Portrait of Samuel George Morton, physician and paleontologist. From a steel engraving 288
11. Portrait of Charles Thomas Jackson, State geologist of Maine, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island. Redrawn from a woodcut by C. Weber 290
12. Portrait of Lardner Vanuxem, geologist of New York State survey. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLVI, 1895 292
13. Portrait of Edward Hitchcock, professor of geology, Amherst College. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLVII, 1895 307
14. Portrait of Henry Darwin Rogers, State geologist of Pennsylvania. From a steel engraving by L. S. Punderson, in Annual of Scientific Discovery, 1858 328
15. Portrait of William Williams Mather, geologist of New York State survey. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLIX, 1896 333
16. Portrait of William Barton Rogers, State geologist of Virginia. From a steel engraving by H. W. Smith, in Annual of Scientific Discovery, 1868 341
17. Portrait of Timothy Abbott Conrad, paleontologist. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLVII, 1895 344
18. Portrait of David Dale Owen, geologist. Redrawn from woodcut in Report on Geology of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota 350
19. Owen's Geological Sections (colored). Reduced from original in Report of Geological Reconnaissance of Chippewa Land District 351
20. Portrait of James Hall, State geologist of New York. From a photograph taken in 1891 379
21. Portrait of James Dwight Dana, professor of geology, Yale College. From a photograph 400
22. River terraces and drift bowlders in Massachusetts. From Hitchcock's Illustrations of Surface Geology, 1857 462
23. Portrait of John Strong Newberry, professor of geology, Columbia College, and State geologist of Ohio. From a steel engraving 480

Facing page.

24. Portrait of Alexander Winchell, professor of geology and paleontology, University of Michigan, and State geologist of Michigan. From a steel engraving in Bulletin of the Geological Society of America, III, 1891 ... 505
25. Members of the geological survey of California, 1860. From a photograph. 515
26. Portraits of James Richardson, Alexander Murray, and Sir William Logan. From photographs ... 517
27. Portrait of George Hammell Cook, State geologist of New Jersey. From a photograph taken about 1877 ... 524
28. Portrait of Edward Orton, professor of geology, Ohio State University, and State geologist of Ohio. From a steel engraving ... 546
29. Portrait of Sir William Dawson, principal of McGill University. From a photograph ... 577
30. Hayden field party at La Veta Pass, August, 1877. From a photograph ... 592
31. Portrait of Ferdinand Vandiveer Hayden, director of U. S. geological survey of the Territories. From a photograph taken about 1876 ... 604
32. Portrait of Fielding Bradford Meek, paleontologist. From a photograph by T. W. Smillie ... 607
33. Portrait of Clarence King, director of U. S. geological explorations of fortieth parallel. From a photograph ... 614
34. Portrait of John Wesley Powell, director of U. S. geographical and geological survey of the Rocky Mountain regions. From a photograph ... 623
35. The Moody Footmark Quarry, South Hadley, Mass. From Hitchcock's Ichnology of New England, 1858 ... 625
36. The Appleton Cabinet. From Hitchcock's Ichnology of New England, 1858 630
37. Portrait of Sir William Logan, director of the Geological survey of Canada. From a photograph ... 635

THE S. S. HOWLAND COLLECTION OF BUDDHIST RELIGIOUS ART IN THE NATIONAL MUSEUM.

By IMMANUEL M. CASANOWICZ.

Facing page.

1. A standing figure of Buddha ... 744
2. Buddha sitting in meditation ... 744
3. Buddha seated upon a lotus ... 744
4. Buddha reclining ... 744
5. Three figurines of Buddha ... 744
6. Buddha with attendants in shrine ... 744
7. The shrine closed ... 744
8. Two Buddhist saints ... 744
9. Buddhist monk ... 744
10. Ornamental begging bowl ... 744
11. Buddhist sacred book ... 744
12. Prayer wheel ... 744
13. A pair of temple lamps ... 744
14. A temple drum ... 744
15. The Chinese god of war ... 744
16. The Chinese god of peace ... 744
17. Two Japanese porcelain figures ... 744

FLINT IMPLEMENTS OF THE FAYUM, EGYPT.

By HEYWOOD WALTER SETON-KARR.

Facing page.

1. Knives of flint from the Fayum, Egypt ... 752
2. Arrowheads of new type. Fayum, Egypt ... 752
3. Arrowheads of varied shape. Fayum, Egypt ... 752
4. Arrowheads of different forms. Fayum, Egypt ... 752
5. Objects of worked flint. Fayum, Egypt ... 752

Facing page.
6. Various types of flint implements. Fayum, Egypt 752
7. Flint implements. Fayum, Egypt 752
8. Arrow and javelin heads, saws, etc. Fayum, Egypt 752
9. Saws and other implements of flint. Fayum, Egypt 752
10. Arrowheads of remarkable form. Fayum, Egypt 752
11. Scrapers, knives, drills, etc. Fayum, Egypt 752
12. Spearheads, sacrificial knives, etc. Fayum, Egypt 752

TEXT FIGURES.

Contributions to the History of American Geology.

By George P. Merrill.

Page.
1. Portrait of Archibald Bruce. From American Journal of Science, I, 1819. 223
2. Portrait of Samuel Luther Dana. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLIX, 1896 229
3. Portrait of Samuel Latham Mitchill. From a steel engraving by Gimber and Dick 231
4. Map to illustrate Mitchill's theory of barriers 232
5. A geological transverse section, extending from Catskill Mountain to the Atlantic. From Eaton's Index to Geology of the Northern States, 1818. 235
6. Portrait of Henry Rowe Schoolcraft. From a steel engraving by Illman & Sons 240
7. Map showing Schoolcraft's route in 1820 241
8. Map of Schoolcraft's travels in 1821 242
9. Schoolcraft's Section of Presque Isle. (Original colored.) From Narrative Journal of Travels, 1820 243
10. Map of Long's expeditions, 1819–20. From an account of an Expedition from Pittsburg to Rocky Mountains 246
11. Geological Sections from the Allegheny to the Rocky Mountains. (After Edwin James.) From report of Long's expedition, 1819–20 248
12. Portrait of Horace H. Hayden. From a painting by permission of Maryland geological survey 259
13. Portrait of Thomas Cooper at age of 70. From a steel engraving by A. B. Durand 261
14. Supposed human footprints in limestone. (After D. D. Owen.) From American Journal of Science, XLIII, 1842 263
15. Portrait of Denison Olmsted. From a steel engraving by A. H. Ritchie.. 267
16. Map showing Routes of Long's expedition of 1823. From Narrative of an Expedition to the Source of St. Peters River 275
17. Sections of Snake Hill, Saratoga Lake. (After J. H. Steel.) From American Journal of Science, 1825 277
18. Portrait of Elisha Mitchell. From a steel engraving 285
19. Eaton's Transverse Sections of the Globe. From Geological Text-Book, 1832 297
20. Portrait of George William Featherstonhaugh. From American Geologist, April, 1889 303
21. Portrait of Jacob Green. From a steel engraving 305
22. Folded axes. (After Edward Hitchcock.) From Final Report on Geology of Massachusetts, II, 1841 314
23. Portrait of Isaac Lea. From a steel engraving in the Annual of Scientific Discovery, 1860 320
24. Portrait of Julius Timoleon Ducatel. From a painting, by permission of Maryland geological survey 323
25. Portrait of James Gates Percival. From an engraving 329
26. Portrait of Samuel Prescott Hildreth. From a photograph 331
27. Page from Mather's Elements of Geology for the use of schools, 1833. (Reproduced exact size) 334
28. Portrait of Abraham Gesner. From an engraving in Bulletin XIV, Natural History Society of New Brunswick, 1896 339

Page.

29. Portrait of Charles Upham Shepard. From a lithograph by Engelbach .. 340
30. Portrait of James Curtis Booth. From a photograph taken in 1876 349
31. Portrait of Bela Hubbard. From an engraving in Magazine of Western History 360
32. General section across the Western States. (After D. D. Owen.) From Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society of London, 1846 369
33. Portrait of James Hall. From a daguerreotype taken in 1843 381
34. Profile of the Island of New York. (After Issachar Cozzens.) From Geological History of Manhattan Island, 1843. (Original colored) 385
35. Portrait of Michael Tuomey. From a photograph taken about 1857 387
36. Portrait of Charles Baker Adams. From an enlarged engraving in American Geologist, XXXII, 1903 391
37. Ideal section of the crust of the earth. (After C. B. Adams.) From First Annual Report Geologist of Vermont, 1845 392
38. Portrait of Zadock Thompson. From a steel engraving by J. C. Buttre.. 393
39. Richmond bowlder train. (After E. Hitchcock.) From American Journal of Science, XXXIX, 1845 394
40. Portrait of Frederick Adolphus Wislizenus. From a photograph 398
41. Portrait of James Dwight Dana. From a lithograph by R. Hoffman, 1857. 401
42. Sketch map of Richmond bowlder train. (After E. R. Benton.) From Bulletin of Museum of Comparative Zoology, V, 1878 403
43. Portrait of John Bulkley Perry. From an engraving by H. W. Smith... 405
44. Map showing Stansbury's routes in 1849–50 410
45. Map of areas surveyed by D. D. Owen in Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois in 1839, and the Chippewa land district in 1847 411
46. Owen's geological sections across Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois. From Report of Geological Exploration of Part of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois, 1839, pl. I 412
47. Trap dikes on Lake Superior. (After D. D. Owen.) From Report of Geological Survey of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota, 1852 414
48. Map showing area surveyed by Jackson, and Foster and Whitney, 1847–49. 415
49. Portrait of Louis Agassiz. From a steel engraving by C. H. Jeens in Nature, April, 1879 417
50. Portrait of John Wells Foster. From a steel engraving 417
51. Portrait of Philip Thomas Tyson. From a painting, by permission of Maryland geological survey 428
52. Portrait of Joseph Granville Norwood, aged 67 years. From a photograph 433
53. Map showing routes of Marcy and Shumard, 1849–52 434
54. Portrait of Oliver Payson Hubbard. From a photograph 435
55. Portrait of John Boardman Trask. From a photograph 436
56. Portrait of Garland Carr Broadhead. From a photograph 438
57. Portrait of Oscar Montgomery Lieber. From a photograph 444
58. Portrait of Jules Marcou. From a photograph 448
59. Map showing principal routes of exploring parties in connection with Pacific railroad surveys 450
60. Portrait of William Phipps Blake. From a photograph 452
61. Portrait of Thomas Antisell. From a photograph 454
62. Portrait of George Gibbs. From a photograph 456
63. Portrait of James Merrill Safford. From a photograph 456
64. Section from the Cumberland to eastern base of Lookout Mountain. (After J. M. Safford.) From a Geological Reconnaissance of Tennessee, 1855 457
65. Paradoxides harlani. From a photograph of one of Green's casts 464
66. Portrait of Richard Owen. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, LI, 1897 475
67. Map showing routes traversed by Newberry with Lieutenant Ives and Captain Macomb, 1857–59 479

Page.

68. Portrait of Eugene Waldemar Hilgard. From a photograph taken January, 1875 484
69. Portrait of Benjamin Franklin Shumard. From an engraving in American Geologist, IV, 1889 486
70. Portrait of Amos Henry Worthen. From a photograph taken about 1863. 498
71. Portrait of Leo Lesquereux. From a photograph taken in May, 1872 ... 499
72. Portrait of Henry Engelmann. From a photograph 502
73. Portrait of Charles Henry Hitchcock. From a photograph taken about 1879. 511
74. Portrait of Thomas Sterry Hunt. From an engraving in American Geologist, XI, 1893 520
75. Portrait of Raphael Pumpelly. From a photograph 523
76. Portrait of Benjamin Franklin Mudge. From a photograph 525
77. Portrait of George Clinton Swallow. From an engraving in American Geologist, XXIV, 1899 527
78. Portrait of Charles Frederick Hartt. From a photograph 529
79. Portraits of Charles Abiather White, Rush Emery, and Orestes St. John. From a photograph taken in 1869 534
80. Portrait of Thomas Brooks Brooks. From a photograph 537
81. Portrait of Carl Rominger. From a photograph taken about 1879 540
82. Portrait of Charles Whittlesey. From a photograph taken in December, 1875 543
83. Portrait of Edward Travers Cox. From a photograph 548
84. Portrait of Alfred Richard Cecil Selwyn. From a photograph 549
85. Portrait of George Little. From a photograph 552
86. Portrait of John Murrish. From a photograph 552
87. Portrait of Othniel Charles Marsh. From a photograph 554
88. Portrait of Joseph Le Conte. From a photograph 561
89. Portrait of Washington Caruthers Kerr. From a photograph 564
90. Portrait of Eugene Allen Smith. From a photograph 565
91. Portrait of John Wesley Powell. From a photograph 566
92. Ideal cross section of the Black Hills. (After Henry Newton.) From Report of Geology and Resources of the Black Hills of Dakota, 1880.. 569
93. Portrait of Increase Allen Lapham. From a photograph taken in 1866.. 570
94. Portrait of Thomas Crowder Chamberlin. From a photograph taken in 1884 571
95. Portrait of Roland Duer Irving. From an engraving in American Geologist, January, 1889 573
96. Portrait of J. Peter Lesley. From a photograph 584
97. Maps showing routes of Raynolds's expedition in 1859–60, and area covered by Hayden's report 588
98. Portrait of Edward Drinker Cope, with a skull of *Loxolophodon cornutus*. From a photograph 595
99. Portrait of Fielding Bradford Meek. From a photograph by Julius Ulke, 1878 596
100. Portrait of Frank Howe Bradley. From a photograph 597
101. Portrait of Joseph Leidy. From an engraving in American Geologist, IX, No. 1 598
102. Portrait of Frederic Miller Endlich. From a photograph 599
103. Inverted beds of Jackass Creek. (After A. C. Peale.) From U. S. Geological Survey of Montana, 1872 599
104. Portrait of Albert Charles Peale. From a photograph taken in 1872.... 600
105. Portrait of Archibald Robertson Marvine. From a photograph taken in 1875 600
106. Sections across the Sierra La Sal. (After A. C. Peale.) From Report U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey, 1875 601
107. Sections across the Sierra El Late. (After W. H. Holmes.) From Report U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey, 1875 602
108. Portrait of William Henry Holmes. From a photograph taken about 1878. 603

Page.

109. Showing areas surveyed and mapped by the Hayden Surveys, 1870–78 .. 604
110. Portrait of Robert Parr Whitfield. From a photograph 609
111. Map showing area covered by the Fortieth Parallel Survey 610
112. Portraits of Arnold Hague, Clarence King, and Samuel Franklin Emmons. From a photograph 612
113. Portrait of Grove Karl Gilbert. From a photograph taken about 1874.. 616
114. Section of the Pahranagat range at Silver Canyon. (After G. K. Gilbert.) From Geological Survey West of One Hundredth Meridian, III, 1875.. 617
115. Portrait of Edwin Eugene Howell. From a photograph taken about 1875. 618
116. Portrait of John James Stevenson. From a photograph 618
117. Map showing area surveyed and mapped by the Powell survey, 1875–80. 620
118. Portrait of Clarence Edward Dutton. From a photograph 621
119. Laccoliths. (After G. K. Gilbert.) From Geology of Henry Mountains, Utah, 1877 622
120. Packing flour 624
121. Fossil footprints. (After Edward Hitchcock.) From American Journal of Science, 1836 626
122. Portrait of James Deane. From a photograph 628
123. Skeleton of *Anchisaurus colarus* Marsh. From American Journal of Science, XLV, 1893 632
124. Supposed fossil from Laurentian limestone. (After W. E. Logan.) From Geology of Canada, 1863 635
125. Small weathered specimens of *Eozoon canadense*. (After J. W. Dawson.) From Chain of Life in Geological Time 636
126. Magnified group of canals in supplemental skeleton of Eozoon. (After J. W. Dawson.) From Chain of Life in Geological Time 637
127. Portion of Eozoon magnified 100 diameters, showing the original cell wall, with tubulation. (After W. B. Carpenter in Dawson's Chain of Life in Geological Time) 638
128. Magnified and restored section of a portion of *Eozoon canadense*. (After J. W. Dawson.) From Chain of Life in Geological Time 639
129. Diagram of Eozoonal rock at Côte St. Pierre. (After T. G. Bonney.) From Geological Magazine, II, 1895 644
130. Map of original Taconic area. (After Ebenezer Emmons) 660
131. Section of Taconic rocks. (After E. Emmons.) From Agriculture of New York, I 661
132. Sections explanatory of the Taconic system. (After E. Emmons.) From Natural History of New York, Pt. 4 662
133. *Atops trilineatus*. (After E. Emmons.) From Agriculture of New York, I, pl. VIII 664
134. *Elliptocephala asaphoides*. (After E. Emmons.) From Agriculture of New York, I, pl. IX 665
135. *Triarthrus beckii and eatoni*. (After James Hall.) From American Journal of Science, XXXIII, 1837–38, p. 140 666
136. *Olenus thompsoni*. (After James Hall.) From Tenth Annual Report Regents of the University of State of New York, 1857 667
137. *Olenus vermontana*. (After James Hall.) From Tenth Annual Report Regents of the University of State of New York 668
138. Portrait of Elkanah Billings. From a photograph 669
139. Portrait of Charles Doolittle Walcott. From a photograph taken in 1891. 672
140. Tabular view of Taconic strata as arranged by E. Emmons. (After C. D. Walcott.) From American Journal of Science, XXXV, April, 1888 .. 673
141. Section of Bald Mountain from the south. (After C. D. Walcott.) From American Journal of Science, XXXV, 1888 674

FLINT IMPLEMENTS OF THE FAYUM, EGYPT.

By HEYWOOD WALTER SETON-KARR.

1. Map of part of Fayum Desert 748

PART I.

REPORT UPON THE CONDITION AND PROGRESS OF THE U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1904.

BY

RICHARD RATHBUN,

ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION,
IN CHARGE OF THE U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM.

REPORT

UPON

THE CONDITION AND PROGRESS OF THE U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1904.

By Richard Rathbun,

Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, in charge of the U. S. National Museum.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

The United States National Museum had its origin in the act of Congress of 1846 founding the Smithsonian Institution, which made the formation of a museum one of the principal functions of the latter, and provided that—

> Whenever suitable arrangements can be made from time to time for their reception, all objects of art and of foreign and curious research, and all objects of natural history, plants, and geological and mineralogical specimens belonging to the United States, which may be in the city of Washington, in whosesoever custody they may be, shall be delivered to such persons as may be authorized by the Board of Regents to receive them, and shall be so arranged and classified in the building erected for the Institution as best to facilitate the examination and study of them; and whenever new specimens in natural history, geology, or mineralogy are obtained for the museum of the Institution, by exchanges of duplicate specimens, which the Regents may in their discretion make, or by donation, which they may receive, or otherwise, the Regents shall cause such new specimens to be appropriately classed and arranged.

The principal and accrued interest of the Smithsonian fund amounted at that time to about $750,000, a sum considered ample to meet the needs of the various operations in which it was proposed that the Smithsonian Institution should engage. In 1846 probably not more than one or two universities or learned establishments in America had so large an endowment, and it was apparently the idea of Congress that the fund was sufficient both for the erection of a building and for the care of the collections which would be turned over to it or acquired by the national surveys, and in other ways. The Museum thus began as an integral part of the Institution, coordinate with its library, and was required by law to provide for the Government collections which had previously accumulated, a duty which the

Institution did not see its way clear to fulfill until 1858, when Congress began to make small yearly appropriations to aid in this purpose. So inadequate, however, were the sums voted that for many years the slender income of the Institution continued to be drawn upon to insure the maintenance of what was then justly called the Smithsonian Museum, since the building was paid for out of the Smithson fund, a considerable portion of the collections was and still is the property of the Institution, through exploration and gift, and a number of the officials connected with the Museum were employed at its expense.

The first scientific collection to come into the possession of the Institution—and, in fact, it accompanied the bequest—was the small but valuable mineralogical cabinet of James Smithson, the founder, who was himself a chemist and mineralogist of repute and a Fellow of the Royal Society of London.

The nucleus of the National Museum was, however, virtually acquired by the National Institute, a society organized in Washington about 1840, having for its avowed purpose the direction of the Smithson bequest and the pursuit of objects in consonance with the terms of that foundation. One of these objects was the gathering of historical and natural history specimens from both official and private sources, most prominent among the former having been the United States Exploring Expedition around the world from 1838 to 1842. Rooms in the Patent Office building were secured for the museum of the society, which was practically recognized as the appropriate place of deposit for all Government collections retained in Washington. Another important service rendered by the society was, as the late Dr. G. Brown Goode has said, in the direction of educating public opinion "to consider the establishment of such an institution worthy of the Government of the United States." Failing, however, to secure the public recognition at which it aimed, it became inactive upon the establishment of the Smithsonian Institution in 1846, and its charter, which expired in 1861, was not renewed. The Government collections in its possession, which came practically under the care of the Commissioner of Patents, were turned over to the Smithsonian Institution in 1858. Other material directly under the control of the National Institute remained at the Patent Office until 1862, and a part of the historical objects were held there until 1883.

Previous to 1858, however, important materials for a museum were being accumulated at the Smithsonian Institution, at its own cost and through the activities of its assistant secretary, Prof. Spencer F. Baird, beginning even before his appointment to that office in 1850. The personal bent of Professor Baird was toward the collection of natural history specimens for purposes of study. With the approval of Secretary Henry he put into operation plans for the accomplishment of this object, which, fostered and encouraged, were soon yield-

ing regular and abundant returns. Professor Baird's own vacations were spent in field work. Officers of the Army and Navy and of other branches of the Government service, fishermen, fur traders, private explorers, and such powerful organizations as the Hudson's Bay Company and the Western Union Telegraph Company, were enlisted in the work and rendered valuable assistance. The influence exerted by these beginnings has been lasting and widespread, as shown in the extensive natural history operations of subsequent National and State surveys, the organization of the Fish Commission and Bureau of Ethnology, and the support given to scientific collecting by many other bureaus of the Government.

The discussion of plans for the organization of the Smithsonian Institution, which devolved upon the first Board of Regents, led, in January, 1847, to the unanimous adoption of the following resolution expressing approval of the museum feature as one of its important functions:

Resolved, That it is the intention of the act of Congress establishing the Institution, and in accordance with the design of Mr. Smithson, as expressed in his will, that one of the principal modes of executing the act and the trust is the accumulation of collections of specimens and objects of natural history and of elegant art, and the gradual formation of a library of valuable works pertaining to all departments of human knowledge, to the end that a copious storehouse of materials of science, literature, and art may be provided, which shall excite and diffuse the love of learning among men, and shall assist the original investigations and efforts of those who may devote themselves to the pursuit of any branch of knowledge.[a]

The policy thus announced has prevailed to the present day.

In 1879, when most of the existing Government surveys, whose work included the collecting of specimens in the field, had been established, Congress deemed it important to practically reenforce the provisions of the act founding the Institution, in order that there might be no doubt as to the proper disposition of the material certain to be derived from these various sources, by the following enactment in the sundry civil appropriation act for 1880:

All collections of rocks, minerals, soils, fossils, and objects of natural history, archeology, and ethnolgy, made by the Coast and Interior Survey, the Geological Survey, or by any other parties for the Government of the United States, when no longer needed for investigations in progress shall be deposited in the National Museum.

Although the name "National Museum" was sometimes used in the earlier reports of the Smithsonian Institution, it did not appear in any of the laws of Congress until 1875. Its general employment may be said to date from the time of the Philadelphia Centennial Exhibition of 1876, the first exposition in this country in which the Government participated, and the first to make known to vast numbers of the people of the United States the existence of national collections at

[a] Report of Committee on Organization, p. 20.

Washington, as well as new methods of installing and exhibiting museum materials, differing radically from the older cabinets of college or local museums, which had prevailed up to that period. After its close the Government exhibits brought back to Washington, together with the extensive gifts made to the United States by private persons and foreign governments, rendered necessary the early erection of a new and separate building, devoted entirely to museum purposes. Since that time Congress has mainly provided for the maintenance of the Museum, but its management remains, by the fundamental act, under the authority of the Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, administered through their Secretary, who is *ex officio* the keeper—a form of government insuring a consistent and uniform policy and a nonpartisan administration of its affairs. The greater part of the Smithsonian building is still used for museum purposes, and the Institution, as well as most of the scientific bureaus at Washington, cooperate, both through men and material, in enlarging and caring for the national collections.

The scope of the National Museum as defined by law comprises practically all branches of science and of the arts which admit of museum treatment. With exceedingly limited means for making purchases, and therefore almost entirely dependent as to the character of its collections upon Government explorations, personal donations, and exchanges, its different departments have had a very unequal growth. The subjects best represented are American ethnology and archeology, geology, zoology, and botany. A fair beginning has been made in the exceedingly important branches of the industrial arts and American history, and scarcely more is required to place these two departments on a proper basis than sufficient room to display the necessary collections, which are certain to be received, in greater part through gratuitous contributions, when it is known that the Museum is prepared to care for them. In the department of the fine arts the collection is still very small, but the subject is one which must sooner or later receive earnest consideration by the Government.

The specimens in all branches are classified in two series; one, comprising the bulk of the material, being arranged for the purposes of scientific research and reference in laboratories and storerooms, to which students are freely admitted; the other, selected with regard to their general educational value and public interest, and accompanied by descriptive labels, being displayed in glass-covered cases in the public halls. The duplicate specimens not required for exchanges are made up into sets for distribution to schools and colleges, as opportunity offers. Papers descriptive of the collections, both technical and popular, are published for gratuitous circulation to the extent of three or more volumes yearly, and, finally, the Museum has come to be regarded as a bureau of information in respect to all

subjects with which it is even in the remotest degree concerned, the correspondence which this involves now constituting one of its heaviest tasks.

The history of the Museum, as pointed out by the late Doctor Goode, may be divided into three epochs, which he characterized as follows:

First, the period from the foundation of the Smithsonian Institution to 1857, during which time specimens were collected solely to serve as materials for research. No special effort was made to exhibit them to the public or to utilize them, except as a foundation for scientific description and theory.

Second, the period from 1857, when the Institution assumed the custody of the "National Cabinet of Curiosities," to 1876. During this period the Museum became a place of deposit for scientific collections which had already been studied, these collections, so far as convenient, being exhibted to the public and, so far as practicable, made to serve an educational purpose.

Third, the present period (beginning in the year 1876), in which the Museum has undertaken more fully the additional task of gathering collections and exhibiting them on account of their value from an educational standpoint.

During the first period the main object of the Museum was scientific research; in the second, the establishment became a museum of record as well as of research, while in the third period has been added the idea of public education. The three ideas—record, research, and education—cooperative and mutually helpful as they are, are essential to the development of every great museum. The National Museum endeavors to promote them all.

In the same connection, Doctor Goode also defined the scope and objects of the Museum in the following concise manner:

It is a museum of record, in which are preserved the material foundations of an enormous amount of scientific knowledge—the types of numerous past investigations. This is especially the case with those materials that have served as a foundation for the reports upon the resources of the United States.

It is a museum of research, which aims to make its contents serve in the highest degree as a stimulus to inquiry and a foundation for scientific investigation. Research is necessary in order to identify and group the objects in the most philosophical and instructive relations, and its officers are therefore selected for their ability as investigators, as well as for their trustworthiness as custodians.

It is an educational museum, through its policy of illustrating by specimens every kind of natural object and every manifestation of human thought and activity, of displaying descriptive labels adapted to the popular mind, and of distributing its publications and its named series of duplicates.

AS A MUSEUM OF RECORD.

In its function as a museum of record the growth of the National Museum has been unprecedented, due mainly to the rapid exploration and development of a rich and extensive country under the liberal and progressive policy of the Government. From scientific institutions throughout the world, from foreign governments, and from individuals abundant stores of great value have been received, either as gifts or through the medium of exchange of specimens, and a small appropriation in recent years has permitted of some purchases to supply desiderata.

The principal sources of the collections may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. The explorations carried on more or less directly under the auspices of the Smithsonian Institution, or by the Institution in connection with educational institutions or commercial establishments, and the efforts, since 1850, of its officers and correspondents toward the accumulation of natural history and anthropological material.

2. The United States Exploring Expedition around the world from 1838 to 1842, the North Pacific, or Perry, Exploring Expedition from 1853 to 1856, and many subsequent naval expeditions down to and including the recent operations in the West Indian and Philippine waters.

3. The activities of members of the United States diplomatic and consular service abroad.

4. The Government surveys at home, such as the Pacific Railroad surveys, the Mexican and Canadian boundary surveys, and the surveys carried on by the Engineer Corps of the U. S. Army; and the activities of officers of the Signal Corps, and other branches of the Army stationed in remote regions.

5. The explorations of the U. S. Geological Survey, the U. S. Fish Commission, the Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of American Ethnology of the Smithsonian Institution, and other scientific branches of the Government.

6. Donations and purchases in connection with the several expositions at home and abroad in which the Museum and Fish Commission have participated, among these having been the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia in 1876, the International Fisheries Exhibitions at Berlin in 1880 and at London in 1883, the New Orleans Cotton Centennial Exposition in 1884 and 1885, the Cincinnati Exposition of 1888, the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago in 1893, the expositions at Atlanta in 1895, at Nashville in 1897, at Omaha in 1898, the Pan-American Exposition of 1901, and the Charleston Exposition of 1901–02. The returns from the World's Fair in Philadelphia were of greatest extent, comprising, besides the collections displayed by the United States in illustration of the animal and mineral resources, the fisheries, and the ethnology of the native races of the country, valuable gifts from thirty of the foreign governments which participated, as well as the industrial collections of numerous manufacturing and commercial houses of Europe and America.

7. Exchanges with foreign and domestic museums and with individuals.

Immediately preceding the Centennial Exhibition of 1876, when the collections were entirely provided for in the Smithsonian building, the number of entries of specimens in the Museum record books was

about 235,000. In 1884, when the additional room afforded by the new building gave opportunity for taking a provisional census of the large accessions received from Philadelphia and from other sources, the number had grown to 1,471,000. At the close of the year covered by this report the total number of recorded specimens was 5,898,493.

While these figures convey no impression of the bulk of the collections, when it is considered that by 1885 all of the space in both buildings was completely filled, and in fact so overcrowded that a third building was already being asked of Congress, some conception may be had of the conditions now existing. The storerooms are packed to their utmost capacity, making it difficult to gain access to the specimens or to provide adequately for their safety. For many years most of the objects received have had to be stored in outside and unsafe structures, where they are mainly piled up in the original packing boxes, and where has already accumulated enough material of great intrinsic and scientific value to fill an additional building as large as that now occupied by the main collections.

AS A MUSEUM OF RESEARCH.

In order to permit of their examination and study, as provided in the act of establishment, the collections of the Museum are, to the extent of its accommodations, arranged systematically and in a manner convenient for reference. Access to the reserve or study series, so called, consisting of the main body of the collections and as complete in all the groups as the accessions have made possible, is given to all properly qualified persons engaged in original research. The opportunities thus afforded are widely availed of, the Museum being visited every year by many investigators, some of world-wide distinction, coming from the scientific centers of European and other foreign countries, as well as from all parts of the United States. Material is also occasionally sent out to representatives of other institutions having the means of providing for its safe-keeping, when required in the working up of special subjects, or for comparison in connection with their own collections.

The custodianship of the collections being the first and most imperative duty devolving upon the scientific staff of the National Museum, its members find comparatively little time during office hours for advancing knowledge, though they are mostly well qualified for such work, being selected with special reference to their ability to identify and classify the specimens under their charge in accordance with the latest researches. As a matter of fact, however, the staff does produce every year a large number of papers descriptive of the collections, which together constitute an important contribution to scientific literature.

Among the honorary officers having their laboratories at the Museum are a number of assistants employed by other scientific bureaus to conduct investigations on material kept here in their charge, and in whose results the Museum shares.

Many collections have, from time to time, been transferred by the Geological Survey, the Fish Commission, the Department of Agriculture, and other branches of the Government to the custody of the Museum in advance of their final working up, in order to provide for their safe storage and to secure the better facilities for study here afforded. Under this arrangement the amount of research work carried on in the Museum building has been greatly increased.

Though having little means to expend for field work, members of the Museum staff are occasionally given opportunities to participate in the explorations of other Government bureaus or of private expeditions, in connection with which special researches may be carried on, though the chief advantage results from the acquisition of new and valuable material and a knowledge of the conditions under which it occurred in nature.

AS AN EDUCATIONAL MUSEUM.

The educational side of the Museum is intended to consist mainly of an exhibition of all the classes of objects which it represents, so mounted, installed, and labeled as to directly interest and instruct the general public. The principal difficulty incident to the proper installation of such a collection, conceding all the space required, lies in the selection of its parts, so that while enough is displayed to convey the amount of information which it is intended to impart, the visitor shall not be overburdened or confused with details. While this policy is being followed in the National Museum, so far as its means permit, the lack of room has always prevented a complete or satisfactory development of the plan, and every succeeding year the conditions in this respect grow worse instead of better, through the increased crowding of the halls. The advances in recent years have been chiefly in the methods of display, in the character of individual and group mountings, and in the labeling, in all of which directions exceptional progress has been made.

Three years ago it was announced that all of the halls designed for public use were then for the first time permanently open, though none were above addition or improvement, while in some the arrangement was entirely provisional. This was accomplished only by the transfer of large quantities of material to outside storage, but it has unfortunately been again necessary to shut off one or more of the halls from time to time, in order to furnish increased space for workrooms.

In this connection it seems appropriate to refer to the work of Doctor Goode, than whom no museum administrator ever had a better

understanding of the public needs. He labored earnestly and conscientiously to make this a museum for as well as of the people, and the plans now being carried out are, in all their essential features, of his making. While the assistants might be relied upon to arrange and maintain the study series in a manner acceptable to the specialist, the interests of the public always remained in his immediate charge. He was ever occupied in devising ways for so presenting the features of nature and the activities of mankind that by the very force of his surroundings the visitor was bound to receive and carry with him some definite impression, some new bit of knowledge. Doctor Goode's labors in this field ranged from the planning of the general scheme to the most minute details of case architecture and fittings. His official connection with nearly all the important expositions of the past quarter of a century and his exhaustive studies of all the principal museums of Europe and the United States gave him exceptional opportunities for observation and experiment. Though a young man when he died, none other had acquired so ripe an experience and none is more worthy of being followed.

An incidental, though very popular, educational feature of the Museum, having for its purpose the promotion of scientific teaching throughout the country, has been the distribution to schools and colleges of its duplicate specimens, properly identified and labeled, and put up in carefully selected sets. Inadequate means have prevented this measure from being carried out on the scale which the resources of the Museum would admit of, but many hundreds of such sets have already been given away.

Scarcely a year passes that some exposition, either at home or abroad, is not occupying the attention of the Museum, and through this means its existence and aims are brought constantly and prominently before the public. These expositions have of late followed one another so closely, and have required such extensive preparations, as to interfere greatly with the ordinary work of the Museum, but the practice of introducing new and varied features, of showing a fresh series of objects or improved groupings in connection with each one, insures a substantial gain, when the collections are returned to Washington, besides fulfilling the important function of making museum methods known to the people of the United States and stimulating the growth of museums in many quarters.

Though mainly technical and most useful to the investigator, the publications of the Museum can be classed, in a general way, as belonging to its educational side, being the medium through which the nature and extent of its collections are made known. The Annual Report, first printed as a separate volume of the Smithsonian Report in 1884, and now in its twentieth volume, consists, besides the administrative part, mainly of semipopular papers on interesting portions of

the collections. The Proceedings and Bulletins are almost exclusively technical, the shorter papers being assigned to the former and the larger and more exhaustive works to the latter. Of the Proceedings twenty-four complete volumes have been issued, and of the Bulletins fifty-two numbers.

THE NEW MUSEUM BUILDING.

As stated in the last report, Congress, in its session of 1903, had authorized the erection of an additional building for the National Museum at a cost not to exceed $3,500,000, and the Board of Regents had appointed a committee to have charge of this important work. The superintendent of construction, Mr. Bernard R. Green, had been designated in the act of Congress, and the architects, Messrs. Hornblower & Marshall, who prepared the tentative sketches, had been selected by the Regents.

By the close of that year the architects had begun upon the elaboration of their plans, a work of slow progress, since the building is not for an object with which that profession, in any part of the world, has had much to do. There is no fixed pattern to follow, but it is hoped to correct some of the faults shown in buildings heretofore put up for the same purpose; to correct them all is beyond expectation. It has been the task of the Museum expert to explain his needs; it is now for the architect to express them in a definite and practical form. It is expected that this work will be satisfactorily accomplished, and a building produced meeting the requirements of science and the arts, as well as those proposed for architectural improvement at the national capital.

It is still too early to discuss the details of the plans. It may be said, however, that the building will be effective in appearance, substantial, and fireproof. It will have an abundance of light and be well ventilated and well heated. The reserve collections and the laboratories of each division will be in relatively close proximity to the corresponding exhibition collections, insuring convenience of study and oversight. Several elevators will connect the different stories, and the comfort of visitors will be fully provided for. Congress has called for plans for a central power and heating plant for the buildings on the Mall. The benefits of such a feature can not fail to be appreciated, but as some delay must occur in carrying out this measure, it is expected that the new Museum building will need to have its own separate plant installed in the basement to meet at least its preliminary wants.

By the beginning of the calendar year 1904 the plans had been sufficiently advanced to fix definitely the main lines, the general dimensions, and the architectural design, though requiring still further study to

harmonize the parts and perfect the many details. At this stage they were, on January 27, approved by the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, with the advice and consent of the Chancellor of the Institution and the chairman of the executive committee, as provided by the resolution of the Board of Regents. About this time also the expert personal services of Prof. S. Homer Woodbridge, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, were engaged to plan the mechanical equipment of the building, including the apparatus for its heating, ventilation, and electric lighting.

The excavation for the building, the contract for which had been awarded to the Cranford Paving Company, of Washington, was begun on June 15, 1904. The lateness of the season precluded the holding of a formal ceremony on that occasion, but the first spadeful of earth was turned by Secretary Langley in the presence of the superintendent of construction, the architects, and the employees of the Museum and Institution. Addressing the superintendent, Mr. Green, the Secretary, remarked:

> On behalf of the Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, with the consent of the chancellor and of the chairman of the executive committee, I now authorize you, in accordance with the act of Congress, to proceed with the construction of the new building for the United States National Museum, designed to increase and diffuse the knowledge of the arts and sciences among the people.

The site of the building was also inclosed with a high board fence and a small frame structure was erected as the headquarters of superintendence. Immediately following the excavation, sometime during the summer, the work of building the foundations will be begun.

GROWTH AND NEEDS OF THE MUSEUM.

On preceding pages a brief history and a summary of the objects of the National Museum have been given. Becoming a prominent feature in the early programme of the Institution, the course of the Museum ran smoothly as long as there was room for its development. Its scope, defined by the organizing act of Congress, was as comprehensive as the sphere of human knowledge in so far as could be compassed by Museum methods. In the beginning its collections were practically all of natural history. Then appeared ethnology and archeology, and finally the arts and industries as exemplified in the work of modern man. In fact, the Museum building proper was intended mainly for the last-named subjects. So rapid, however, has been the growth of the collections that some confusion has resulted in their arrangement, and their appearance at present is no criterion of the wealth of the Museum or of its scope and anticipations. The Museum has back of it all the Government surveys, whether at home or abroad—a guaranty of the value of at least a large proportion of its

acquisitions. It has many friends, some the owners of large and important collections, who have come to recognize that in an institution founded by the Government for all time their specimens will be not only perpetually and securely cared for, but also at the service of every specialist who needs to consult them. Officials of the Government detailed for duty in the new possessions, rich in novelties of nature and of culture, are giving thought to the wants of their National Museum. By means of the duplicates, set aside as collections are worked over, exchanges are made with other museums, whereby important additions are obtained. The exhibition collections in some branches, notably the historical, owe many of their most attractive features to loans. These are not the property of the Museum and may only remain in its possession for short periods; but the spirit of liberality in this direction, long manifested, is growing steadily, until of late it has sometimes been necessary to decline important deposits on account of lack of room. This difficulty will be overcome upon the completion of the new building, whose greater accommodations and improved facilities will, it is hoped, prove an additional incentive to the possessors of collections, large or small, which may be instructive to the people.

In appropriating for the large expositions, of which many have been held in recent years, there has been a general understanding on the part of Congress that from the allotment to the National Museum the Museum shall gain something of permanent value. By judicious management, though the amounts have been small, the Museum has secured many unique specimens which it could not have obtained in any other way at its command. With several of the larger museums, which are well supplied with funds, it is customary to send out exploring expeditions even to distant regions, and some of these investigations are conducted on a very extensive scale. They are an important source of collections as well as of information, but the National Museum has neither the funds nor a sufficiently large staff to engage in such work except on a very small scale, generally in connection with one or other of the Government surveying expeditions, and with the object of obtaining material which these surveys do not collect.

There is one method of obtaining collections in which the National Museum has been weak, while by such means all of the larger museums of the world, whether national, municipal, or private, have acquired a large proportion of their treasures. This is in the direct expenditure of money for purchases. The importance of this method is not realized by Congress, though it might be, were the matter given thorough consideration and were the proper relations of the Museum to those bureaus of the Government which are charged by Congress with the investigation of agricultural, mining, fishery, and

other like problems, better understood. The specimens resulting from all Government surveys and investigations are transferred to the National Museum as soon as the studies upon them are completed. The Museum is, therefore, the depository for all Government collections. Those who wish to consult them, whether in the Government employ or strangers to it, must come to the Museum. It is, therefore, to be concluded that the National Museum is not a passive body, but one most actively concerned in the development of the welfare of the country. Yet, in a general way, the investigators of practical problems for the Government find here only what they themselves have collected. They need more complete series of objects in order that their studies may be more complete, and at least for the benefit of the industries of the country the gaps in the series should be filled up as opportunity offers. An expert set to work upon a problem of far-reaching economic importance requires to have before him all the material possible, that nothing bearing upon his subject shall escape his observation. It is the province of a large central museum to possess these extended collections, classified and arranged so that they may at all times be accessible.

The curio shop of old has given way to the modern museum, with its definite purpose based upon experience and the advance of knowledge during many years. While the purpose may vary in accordance with the character and advantages of a museum, none can doubt that it should be the primary object of a great national museum like the one at Washington to subserve the needs of the Government, to do a large part toward promoting the material interests of the people.

It is in this spirit and with these objects in view that appropriations are asked for the purchase of such specimens as can not be acquired in other ways. To approach perfection in the rounding out of collections is in itself naturally very gratifying, but to do this for the purpose of benefiting the practical investigations of the Government is the chief aim of the National Museum. Private collectors and students have spent their lives in bringing together special collections which are often far more perfect than can be obtained through the means supplied by the Government, and rare and unique objects of exceeding value fall into the hands of individuals. The National Museum should have the means of acquiring such of these as are required for the purposes of the Government, and all this with the understanding that the Museum is only a part of the system organized by the Government for improving the condition of its people.

The collections are separated into practically two series, the so-called reserve or working series being arranged for the convenience of investigators, while for the instruction and entertainment of the public ample provision is made here as elsewhere, much more room, in fact, having been allotted to this than to other purposes. There is, of

course, a limit beyond which any display becomes bewildering and tiresome, but that point has not yet been reached in this Museum. The exhibition collections comprise selections from all the branches represented, and only enough from each to serve the desired purpose. In some branches, however, like history, nearly all the material objects are appropriate for exhibition and find their most appreciative critics among the general public. In other branches, moreover, there are many large objects which can best be cared for in the exhibition halls, and are, therefore, nearly always seen there.

A third division of the collections, one prepared for general teachers and young students, as suggested by Dr. F. A. Bather, of the British Museum, might readily be arranged when additional room becomes available, but there is less need for such in this country than seems to be the case abroad, since nearly all the schools and colleges throughout the United States have their own collections, especially of natural history, supplied in part from the duplicates in the national collections.

It will thus be seen that the collections which come to the National Museum are being utilized to the fullest extent and in a most liberal manner. The reserve series, comprising the specimens which have already been worked up and are held as records of past investigations, together with those which still remain to be studied, constitute the technically important part of the Museum, and alone justify its existence. The public collections, however, take the greatest amount of space, require the largest expenditure of money, and demand the most ingenuity in their selection and arrangement. There remain the duplicates, only known to be such as the work of classification proceeds, which serve the double purpose of securing valuable returns through exchange and of promoting education by their gratuitous distribution to schools and colleges. The amount of material used for the latter purpose since this practice was established over half a century ago, has been very great.

The greatest discrepancy to-day in the administration of the Museum results, however, from an insufficient staff, not as regards efficiency but numbers. Only one who has had to do with the management of such a large trust can fully appreciate the significance of this statement, and those clothed with power to correct this condition have not yet come to thoroughly understand the importance of the matter. The responsibilities in administering upon a national museum of this great and free country are probably much heavier than those in any other land. The policy recognized in every branch of the Government of the United States, and sanctioned by Congress, is to do for the people whatever is possible. This Government is doing for its people what no other government has ventured to attempt, and the result is a condition of extreme prosperity and contentment. And

is no share of credit for this condition to be given to the National Museum? It plays an important part in this great programme of which it is supremely proud, and while Congress may not yet fully realize what it accomplishes in this respect, the public does, and demands more than it can perform.

For the conduct of its technical work the Museum is able to employ less than 35 persons of all grades. Nearly as many more employees of the Government give as much of their time as can be spared in the interest of the classification of the collections and their supervision. For the proper installation and maintenance of the exhibition collections, in which Congress places much store, further skilled help is required, and a supervision which has long been inadequate. The force of watchmen employed for the safety of the collections, both by day and night, would be scarcely equal to the task of protecting, under the same circumstances, even the contents of a large jewelry store. The Museum contains objects whose intrinsic value mounts into the hundreds of thousands of dollars, many of which are so small that several could be carried away in a man's pocket. In a jewelry establishment the valuables are packed away each evening in large safes. Such a course is impossible in the Museum, owing to the number of its treasures. They must be left in the cases, and yet the appropriations permit of so small a force of watchmen that they are kept under great and constant strain to prevent the abstraction of what could never be replaced.

Beginning years ago Congress, in the interest of their constituents, looked to the Museum for the analysis of mining products and for the identification of objects of every kind. These demands have increased rapidly, and their satisfaction has always been regarded as within the legitimate province of the Museum. The fact, however, is not appreciated that work of this character requires the attention of trained experts, and the time of the scientific staff is largely occupied in complying with such requests. In preparing the letters of reply, in registering the specimens received, in cataloguing, in taking down the notes of investigators, in arranging and keeping track of the collections, a comparatively large intelligent clerical force is required. In the preparation of duplicate collections, in the shipping and receiving room, in the library, in the making of cases and the installation of specimens, in the keeping clean of all the large halls, there must be help, and at the minimum this is no small item.

The U. S. National Museum is like no other museum in this country, and it has no parallel in the world. Elsewhere, with few exceptions, museums exist solely for what may be termed museum purposes. They promote science and they promote the arts. Many are powerful factors in education and in the improvement of industries. The U. S. National

Museum attempts to do the same within the limits of its scope, but it has an added function in that it shares a part of the executive work of the Government. The correspondence with members of Congress and with the Executive Departments is very large, but not nearly as extensive as that with the public, and all is supposed to relate to business on which the Museum only is in a position to furnish information. The frequent expositions also greatly increase the burden of work, for, though special appropriations are made for them, it is necessary to call upon the skilled employees of the Museum to a large extent. This means that a proportionately larger force is required than in museums generally, and the increase is as necessary outside as within the scientific staff.

It is not to be expected that a complete staff will ever be within the means of the Museum—that is to say, a staff sufficient to do especially all the classificatory work required. Such a staff has nowhere been assembled. In a proper organization, however, there should be an adequate number of experts, some at least of the highest rank, to control and supervise the several subjects represented. In this respect the National Museum is now far below the standard. The members of its staff, while acting as custodians of the collections, should be competent to assist extensively in their classification, should appreciate their value and significance, and should have the faculty of keeping order, so that any specimen in their care can readily be found.

The classification of collections must always be largely done by outsiders, the result of the specialization of study, and this is the course now almost universally pursued as a matter of necessity when large collections are being worked up. In accordance with this plan, the National Museum has now many experts at work on special parts of its collections, most of them connected with institutions in the United States, but some abroad. In this way the collections are being classified in the most accurate manner possible. When they are returned to Washington they need the same oversight as before, but their value has been enhanced by the fact that the specimens are no longer an uncertain quantity.

Other parts of the business of the Museum can not be carried on in the same way the administration, the correspondence, the care of the collections and their installation for reference or exhibition, the watch service, the skilled help in the mechanical departments and in the preparation of specimens, and the labor required to keep the buildings clean, to do the moving and lifting and to assist in every branch of work the workers in these directions can not be omitted from the staff, nor can their labor be performed by volunteer assistance.

Among other important needs of the Museum are means for maintaining its library on a better basis. The library is purely technical, having no other use than to provide for the working up of the collec-

tions, but the small annual appropriation given for this purpose is inadequate even to provide the current literature on the necessary subjects, though the freest use be made of the Library of Congress.

There is still another subject to which it is desirable that reference should be made—the extension of the hours of opening the buildings to the public so as to include Sundays and evenings. A change in this direction would be of inestimable value to the working people as well as to visitors to the capital, and the extra expense would be small.

The writer desires to call attention in this connection to the part now being taken by the Museum, in conjunction with the parent institution and its other bureaus, at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. The Museum has had a long experience in matters of this kind, beginning with Philadelphia in 1876, and it is therefore to be expected that some improvement would be shown at each succeeding exposition. The display at the St. Louis Fair now in progress is more noteworthy than anything that has preceded it, both in the novelty of the objects exhibited and in the perfection and attractiveness of the installation, which have already elicited much praise.

SUMMARY OF THE OPERATIONS OF THE YEAR.

APPROPRIATIONS AND EXPENDITURES.

The total amount appropriated by Congress for the maintenance of the National Museum during the year ending June 30, 1904, was $269,400, as against $281,400 for the previous year. The decrease was due to the omission of the appropriation of $7,000 for publishing the "Contributions from the U. S. National Herbarium," and to the fact that there was no necessity for renewing the item of $5,000 appropriated the previous year for the preparation of preliminary plans for an additional Museum building. A special appropriation of $250,000 was made as the first installment of the cost of this building.

The expenditures up to the close of the year from the appropriations for 1903–4 amounted to $254,286.59, leaving a balance of $15,113.41 to meet outstanding liabilities. During the same year $22,479.50 were disbursed from the balance of $23,408.14 of the appropriation for 1902–3, on hand July 1, 1903.

The following tables show the expenditures during the year 1903–04, under each item of appropriation:

Appropriations and expenditures for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904.

Object.	Appropriations.	Expenditures.	Balance June 30, 1904.
Preservation of collections	$180,000.00	$173,860.01	$6,139.99
Furniture and fixtures	22,500.00	19,068.02	3,431.98
Heating and lighting	18,000.00	17,184.42	815.58
Building repairs	15,000.00	12,531.68	2,468.32
Books, pamphlets, and periodicals	2,000.00	1,227.60	772.40
Purchase of specimens	10,000.00	8,517.73	1,482.27
Rent of workshops	4,400.00	4,399.92	.08
Postage	500.00	500.00	.....
Printing and binding	17,000.00	16,997.21	2.79
Total	269,400.00	254,286.59	15,113.41

Disbursements from unexpended balances of appropriations for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1903.

Object.	Balance June 30, 1903.	Expenditures.	Balance June 30, 1904.
Preservation of collections	$9,597.20	$9,196.97	$400.23
Furniture and fixtures	1,696.24	1,683.66	12.58
Heating and lighting	1,962.63	1,950.77	11.86
Building repairs	1,528.97	1,470.95	58.04
Books, pamphlets, etc	606.62	556.86	49.76
Purchase of specimens	4,000.69	3,650.51	350.18
Rent of workshops	.08		.08
Publishing contributions from National Herbarium	3,972.51	3,969.80	2.71
Plans for additional building	43.20		43.20
Total	23,408.14	22,479.50	928.64

Disbursements from the appropriation for 1901–02 were made as follows: Preservation of collections, $100.52; books, pamphlets, and periodicals, $165.89; purchase of specimens, $20, leaving balances of $58.64, $32.38, and $35.26, respectively. These balances, together with unexpended balances of the appropriation for furniture and fixtures, heating and lighting, building repairs, construction of galleries and rent of workshops, amounting to $161.43, have reverted to the surplus fund of the Treasury.

The regular appropriations for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1905, are as follows:

Furniture and fixtures	$22,500
Heating and lighting	18,000
Preservation of collections	180,000
Books, pamphlets, and periodicals	2,000
Building repairs	15,000
Rent of workshops	4,580
Postage	500
Printing and binding	25,000
Total	267,580

It will be observed that the item for printing and binding has been increased from $17,000 to $25,000, and that for rent of workshops from $4,400 to $4,580; while the appropriation of $10,000 for the purchase of specimens has been omitted. With these exceptions the appropriations are the same as for the fiscal year 1904.

BUILDINGS.

The progress made toward the construction of an additional building for the National Museum has been described in a previous part of this report. The architects' plans had advanced so far that actual work upon the site was possible by June 15, 1904, on which date the excava-

tion of the ground was started. The building of the foundations will follow next, and should be completed before winter.

The very unsatisfactory condition of the roof of the present Museum building has been repeatedly referred to, and attention has also been called to the fact that any repairs which can now be made will be essentially temporary, since the supporting iron framework over the main halls lacks sufficient strength, and the slate covering can not be made entirely tight, whereby leaks occur where least expected, damaging the walls and at times even defacing the cases. The difficulty with the slate results largely from the contraction and expansion of the framework, due to changes in temperature, and heavy falls of snow have also caused parts of the iron structure to buckle.

The faulty character of the roof is undoubtedly due to the cheap manner in which it was originally constructed. The only remedy seems to be the substitution of a new roof, at least over the large halls, courts, and rotunda. Such an extensive repair is impracticable at this time, or until the new building is finished, as there is no place in which the collections could be stored. In the meantime, however, with the aid of experts, strong efforts are being made to render the roofs effective for a few years longer without the necessity for constant and unavailing attention. The work was started during last year and will be continued during the present one.

The area of tin roofing around the rotunda and over the eight ranges, which had greatly deteriorated, was thoroughly repaired, all imperfect tin being replaced and many seams resoldered. The rotunda roof was extended down over the old top gutters and new overhanging gutters, and down spouts were added. The slate roof over the east hall was, as an experiment, covered with a coating of Bermuda asphalt, burlap, and slag, intended to fill the interspaces between the slates and to present an unbroken surface for carrying off the water. Up to the time of writing, this expedient seems to have answered its purpose well, and should it continue to do so, the other slate roofs will be treated in the same way. The work about the roof has also included repairs to the skylights and to clear-story and rotunda windows, the insertion of ventilator frames in many of these, and the addition of skylights over two of the ranges, made necessary by the construction of galleries.

The dilapidated platform in front of the main entrance has been replaced with one of mosaic, consisting of large irregular marble fragments, and the steps and side coping have been reset.

The repairs in the interior of the Museum building have been chiefly of a minor character, though in the aggregate extensive. They have related mainly to the floors and to the walls and ceilings. The stenciling of the rotunda walls, which had been deferred until the roof of

this part of the building had been made more secure, was also in progress at the close of the year.

Many persistent leaks about the roof of the Smithsonian building, which previous repairs had not corrected, were found to be mainly due to the imperfect condition of the old tin gutters and down spouts, which were repaired during the year, copper being generally substituted where a renewal of material was necessary.

Reference has been made in earlier reports to the unsafe condition of the plastering in Archeological Hall, which began to show innumerable large cracks several years ago. At times small pieces of the plaster would fall, but in September, 1902, several such large masses gave way from the ceiling as to damage the cases underneath and emphasize the fact that the hall should be closed to the public. It was only during the past year that the damage could be repaired, and this necessitated a very considerable undertaking. The entire area of plaster was carefully tested and all loose parts were removed. The bare places were carefully pointed up, but the plaster cornices of the large central panels were replaced by others of galvanized iron, as being the cheaper method. Subsequently the room was painted in water color, the walls green, the ceiling in light tints of green to ivory. This extensive repair greatly disturbed the arrangement of the archeological collections, and a considerable period will be required for the renovation of the cases and the reinstallation of their contents.

The number of cases made during the year was 212, the number of specimen drawers 3,378, these having been chiefly required for the storage and arrangement of collections received from Government surveys. A large part of the work done under the head of "Furniture and fixtures," however, has consisted in the repair and renovation of cases; the making and inserting of fittings in the exhibition cases, including the shelving and their supports, and the tablets and other devices on which the specimens are mounted; the more extensive supports for the mounting of large exhibits, such as recent and fossil vertebrates and ethnological and archeological objects; the making of label-holders and the painting of large labels and signs for the cases and halls, and the construction of laboratory and office furniture.

Rearrangements in certain parts of the building have necessitated a few readjustments of the electric-light wiring, and there have been some minor extensions of this system into storerooms and laboratories not previously so provided. A small electric motor has also been installed in the geological workshops in the Emery building.

The high-pressure steam boilers placed in the Museum building in the summer of 1901 have continued to give satisfaction. From this source both of the large buildings, as well as the several smaller ones adjacent, are now heated. There has been the usual amount of repairs in connection with the heating apparatus, and it has been found neces-

sary to increase the number of radiators in some of the halls. Steam was first raised in the boilers on October 10, 1903, and, with some interruptions, continued to be maintained until May 3, 1904.

The fire apparatus was thoroughly overhauled during the year and its condition greatly improved. Some of the extinguishers of old pattern were replaced by others of more recent make and more effective character.

The amount of labor involved in maintaining the cleanliness of the buildings can scarcely be appreciated except by those who have the matter in charge. Twenty-two exhibition halls, mostly of large size and many containing galleries, and 89 laboratories, office rooms, toilet rooms, etc., require to be swept and dusted every morning, and, for the most part, before 9 o'clock. In this enumeration is not included the outside buildings. The number of regular laborers and cleaners amounts to only 22, and these same men are also fully occupied throughout the day on other matters. The number of exhibition cases of which the glass has to be kept clean and the woodwork free from dust is over 1,300.

ADDITIONS TO THE COLLECTIONS.

The National Museum, as the legally constituted depository for the science and art collections of the Government, has as its most constant and important sources of supply the national surveys and explorations, such as are conducted by the Geological Survey, the Bureau of Fisheries, the Biological Survey and Bureaus of Entomology and Plant Industry of the Department of Agriculture, and the Bureau of American Ethnology of the Smithsonian Institution. But these are not the only Government branches which conduct explorations. The Departments of War and of the Navy sent out many important expeditions during the early and middle part of the last century, and in connection with the recent acquisition of new territory they have again furnished the opportunity for securing valuable collections. Interesting objects are also sent home from time to time by members of the consular service of the State Department. A large part of the additions to the Museum are, however, received from individuals and private establishments, through donation and exchange, and the exhibition series derives many of its attractive features from loans or deposits. Field collecting by members of the Museum staff is almost prohibited by the scarcity of funds, and the acquisition of specimens by purchase is seriously restricted because of the small appropriation for that purpose.

Appendix II of this report contains a complete list of the accessions for the year, and the more noteworthy are described in the reports of the head curators.

The number of separate lots of material received during the year was 1,703, as against 1,643 in 1903, aggregating about 241,527 speci-

mens and thereby increasing the total number of specimens recorded in all of the departments to approximately 5,898,493. Of these, nearly 4,200,000 belong to the Department of Biology, about 975,000 to Anthropology, and about 730,000 to Geology.

The additions in anthropology during 1904 numbered 19,121 specimens, of which the more important were many carefully selected objects obtained by Dr. W. L. Abbott among the natives of the Malay Peninsula, northern Sumatra, and the Mentawei Archipelago. These, in conjunction with the previous generous contributions of Doctor Abbott from the same and other parts of southern Asia, constitute an exceedingly valuable and unique feature of the ethnological collections, and are now being used as the basis for a monographic report by Professor Mason and Doctor Hough. The same explorer also sent material bearing upon the physical characteristics of the Moros, and of apes and monkeys.

Dr. E. A. Mearns, U. S. Army, who has continued his scientific work while on duty in the Philippine Islands, presented an especially interesting collection made by him personally during a campaign against the Moros of Mindanao. It is rich in weapons, basketry, and fine brass work. Another Moro collection, received as a loan from Dr. R. B. Grubbs, also of the United States Army, consists of edged weapons, spears, armor, costumes, and other specimens of the handiwork of those people. Several native Philippine Island firearms were presented by the President of the United States.

Two totem poles and four house posts of large size and excellent workmanship, taken from a Tlinkit village, were obtained through Dr. George A. Dorsey, of the Field Columbian Museum, and a valuable lot of art objects from southwestern Alaska, consisting of carved clubs, embroidered blankets, figures, knives, etc., through Lieut. G. T. Emmons, U. S. Navy. Some important additions were made to the already large collections of Indian basketry, musical instruments, and folklore.

The large archeological collection which had belonged to the late Dr. Thomas Wilson, curator of prehistoric archeology, and which remained on deposit in the Museum during his lifetime, was purchased during the year. It consists of over 19,000 pieces, of which somewhat under two-thirds are of European origin, the remainder being from North America. The European material covers a wide range, beginning with the roughly shaped flint implements of the river gravels of England and France, and ending with the more highly elaborated objects of the polished stone and bronze ages. The American specimens are mainly from Virginia, Tennessee, and Arkansas.

The very valuable collection of archeological objects obtained in Porto Rico, Trinidad, Grenada, Barbados, Dominica, Cuba, and other

West Indian islands, during the winter of 1903, by Dr. J. Walter Fewkes, of the Bureau of American Ethnology, has been transferred to the keeping of the Museum. It contains a great variety of objects, some of the most noteworthy being especially fine examples of stone collars, tripointed stone zemes, earthenware bowls, carved stone faces, amulets, etc., all of which were secured in the course of a thoroughly systematic investigation of the island region between North and South America. The same Bureau also deposited a large series of stone and bone implements, pieces of pottery and woven work, and fragments of animal and human bones, collected by Mr. E. H. Jacobs in caverns, rock shelters, and village sites in the Ozark region of Missouri and Arkansas.

By bequest of the late Mr. I. H. Harris, of Waynesville, Ohio, there was obtained a large and varied collection of stone implements, with some shell beads and carvings and a few copper implements and ornaments, mainly from the Miami Valley of Ohio, and of typical earthenware vessels from mounds near Charlestown, Missouri. Mr. H. W. Seton-Karr, of England, presented an unusually interesting series of Egyptian stone implements, mainly of a type peculiar to the desert of the Fayum district, about 10 miles from the present limits of cultivation. From Mr. Felix F. Outes were secured several earthenware vessels taken from aboriginal graves in the province of Catamarca, Argentina.

A number of casts of Assyro-Babylonian, Egyptian, and Græco-Roman sculptures were obtained by purchase, and several others by donation from the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. In this collection is a stela engraved with the code of laws of the Babylonian King, Hammurabi. A series of heliogravures of Hellenistic portraits was presented by Mr. Theodor Graf, of Vienna, Austria; and knives and flint implements from the Temple of Osiris, Abydos, were received from the Egyptian Exploration Fund.

To the recently established Division of Physical Anthropology there were added more than 2,000 crania and skeletons by transfer from the Army Medical Museum, 14 crania of Wasco Indians from the Fred. Harvey collection, and other desirable specimens.

The additions to the historical collections included a valuable series of relics presented to the Smithsonian Institution by Gen. John Watts de Peyster, who has also made several large contributions of important historical works; the gilt dress sword presented to Gen. Jacob Brown by the State of New York, for services during the war of 1812, donated by his grandson, Mr. Nathan Brown Chase; the sword and epaulets worn by Gen. Alex. McComb, U. S. Army, deposited by Mrs. F. C. d'Hautville; a fine oil painting of George Catlin by W. H. Fisk, R. A., lent by his daughter, Mrs. Louise Catlin Kinney, and now hung in

the midst of the famous Catlin collection of Indian portraits, and numerous relics deposited by the National Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution.

The technological exhibits have been materially increased, among the accessions of special and to a great extent also of historical interest being a collection of rifles, muskets, and other firearms, 615 in number, showing the improvements of many years and containing several noteworthy pieces, deposited by the Bureau of Ordnance of the War Department; a collection of sporting rifles of the kinds used in this country prior to about 1850, accompanied by powderhorns, etc., lent by Mr. Herman Hollerith; a finely finished .44-caliber rifle made by Henry Deringer, of Philadelphia, and often used by David Crockett in target practice, lent by Col. Wright Rives; a rare form of flintlock pistol with folding bayonet, presented by Mr. Paul Beckwith; a collection of Morse telegraph keys, insulators, and other electrical apparatus in use about 1850, presented by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company; a telegraph switch invented in 1855 by E. W. Culgan, of Pittsburg, and generally employed down to 1865, donated by Mr. C. S. Greer, of Zanesville, Ohio, and a collection illustrating the development of the hand camera, contributed by the Eastman Kodak Company.

The accessions to the Department of Biology embraced 151,273 specimens, or nearly 41,000 more than the previous year. The collection of insects was increased by 58,953 specimens and the herbarium by 43,800, the remaining 48,520 specimens being divided among the other divisions.

The most extensive of the zoological additions in point of number of specimens consisted of about 40,000 insects collected in British Columbia by Dr. Harrison G. Dyar, assisted by Mr. R. P. Currie and Mr. A. N. Caudell. The Bureau of Fisheries transmitted large collections of land and fresh-water shells, reptiles, and crustaceans from Indiana and other States; a valuable series of marine mollusks, chiefly from Alaska; the types of recently described fishes from Japan, the Hawaiian Islands, etc.; fishes, crustaceans, and corals secured in connection with the Alaskan Salmon Fisheries Investigation of 1903, and 461 plants from Alaska and Oregon.

Especially worthy of mention are important zoological contributions from the Mentawei Archipelago, eastern Sumatra, and the various islands off that coast, obtained and presented by Dr. William L. Abbott. Thirty-one new forms of mammals, including one new genus and two new species of gibbon and several new species of birds, are represented in the collection from the archipelago, while that from eastern Sumatra also contains very valuable material, among which are numerous forms of birds and reptiles not previously represented in the Museum. Several valuable lots of mammals, birds, and mol-

lusks from Minnesota and the Philippine Islands were donated by Dr. E. A. Mearns, U. S. Army. A large number of mammals, birds, reptiles, and fishes from the Bahama Islands were secured as the result of the expedition sent out by the Baltimore Geographical Society, and of which Mr. B. A. Bean and Mr. J. H. Riley, of the Museum staff, were members. A valuable collection of birds' eggs and reptiles from Texas was transmitted by the Biological Survey of the Department of Agriculture. Other miscellaneous lots consisted of birds, land shells, and insects from the mountains of Venezuela, and of bats and birds from Barbuda and Antigua islands.

Noteworthy among the mammals received were a specimen of a remarkable species of bat, *Euderma maculatum*, presented by Mr. E. O. Wooton, of Mesilla Park, New Mexico; the first authentic specimen of a jaguar from the United States; a rare mouse-deer, *Tragulus stanleyanus*, obtained from M. Emile Deschamps; a collection of Old World mammals, from Mr. W. Schlüter; a collection of Japanese mammals, from Mr. T. Tsuchida; some rare forms of bats from the British Museum; a collection of Colombian mammals from the American Museum of Natural History, and a number of bats from Cuba, the gift of Capt. Wirt Robinson, U. S. Army.

An interesting series of birds of the Philippine Islands was secured by exchange with the museum in Manila. Mr. Homer Davenport, of East Orange, New Jersey, donated a number of young pheasants, and Mr. N. C. Brown, of Portland, Maine, a well-prepared series of birds from South Carolina. Four species of birds-of-paradise, new to the collection, were purchased. Dr. W. L. Ralph, of the Museum staff, and Gen. J. W. Barlow made generous contributions to the collection of birds' eggs, and series of rare Mexican eggs and of the eggs of the hoactzin were purchased.

A collection of Japanese reptiles was presented by Dr. Hugh M. Smith, Deputy Commissioner of Fisheries, and some rare reptiles of southern Florida by Mr. E. J. Brown, of Lemon City, Florida. The Division of Fishes has received a large number of Japanese species from the Leland Stanford Junior University, and a well-prepared series of specimens from Puget Sound, donated by Dr. J. C. Thompson, U. S. Navy. A specimen of the Japanese shark, *Mitsukuria owstoni*, 11 feet long, was purchased.

Hawaiian land shells and other invertebrates were received from Mr. H. W. Henshaw, of Hilo, Hawaii; Dr. R. E. C. Stearns, associate in zoology, now residing in Los Angeles, California, presented an extensive series of west American shells, and Mr. H. N. Lowe and Mrs. Blanche Trask several lots of Californian shells. Mr. E. J. Court, of Washington City, donated a representative series of the land shells of Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia; Mr. Dwight Blaney, about 300 shells dredged near Mount Desert, Maine,

and Mr. C. A. Davis, many Bermuda shells, including several cotypes. Among the specimens obtained by purchase was a large collection of Japanese land and marine mollusks, and land shells from the Pacific coast and the islands off California. Rev. L. T. Chamberlain presented a small collection of rare river mussels.

The division of marine invertebrates received a collection of Mexican fresh-water crabs from the Biological Survey of the Department of Agriculture; crustaceans from Catalina and San Clemente islands, presented by Mr. H. N. Lowe; cotypes of a species of shrimp and of a stomatopod crustacean from the National Museum of Brazil; several beautiful specimens of four species of Japanese precious coral, from Dr. K. Kishinouye, and a collection of sea urchins, chiefly from the Gulf of Siam, from the Zoological Museum in Copenhagen.

The additions to the division of insects were numerous and valuable. Among those of greatest importance, next to the one already mentioned, may be noted two lots of over 6,000 specimens from the Department of Agriculture; an extensive collection of Coleoptera, Lepidoptera, etc., made by Mr. E. A. Schwarz in Cuba; several lots of Philippine insects from Rev. W. A. Stanton, of Manila, and one from Mr. R. C. McGregor, of the Philippine Museum; a miscellaneous collection from the grounds of the Washington Biologists' Field Club at Plummers Island; a valuable collection of Lepidoptera, from Mr. E. M. Anderson, of the Provincial Museum at Victoria, British Columbia, and a large collection from Colorado and New Mexico from Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell. From foreign sources the following collections were received as gifts: Indian Hymenoptera from Maj. C. G. Nurse; Indian spiders from Prof. N. Jambunathan; Venezuelan beetles from Mr. Edward A. Klages; Peruvian insects from Mr. M. J. Pusey; Norwegian Lepidoptera from Sir George Hampson, of the British Museum, and Japanese Hymenoptera from Prof. S. Matsumura, of Sapporo.

Of 555 accessions to the division of plants, the most valuable was the deposit made by Dr. E. L. Greene of his very valuable collection of about 60,000 sheets of plants and his entire botanical library, consisting of about 3,000 volumes and pamphlets. Next in importance was the gift by Mrs. T. A. Williams, of Memphis, Nebraska, of about 15,000 specimens from various parts of the United States. Mr. C. V. Piper, of Pullman, Washington, presented 658 plants from that State, and Mr. E. W. D. Holway, of Minneapolis, Minnesota, an interesting collection of Mexican plants. Important exchanges were made with the Philippine Bureau of Agriculture, the New York Botanical Garden, and the Royal Gardens at Kew, England. Sixty-eight botanical accessions were received from the Department of Agriculture, the most important comprising specimens obtained in Texas by Mr. Arthur Howell, in New Mexico and Oklahoma by Mr. Fred G. Plummer, and

in New Mexico by Mr. Vernon Bailey. Plants from Australia, Mexico, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and from several of the States were acquired by purchase.

There were 690 accessions to the Department of Geology, the most extensive coming, as usual, from the U. S. Geological Survey. Prominent among them were about 40,000 invertebrate fossils, mostly named, and including a large amount of material on which Dr. William H. Dall and his assistants have been working for several years. The Survey also transmitted a series of 1,932 tertiary insects, assembled by Dr. Samuel H. Scudder, but in large part still unworked, together with many hundred original drawings, a great part of which are unpublished. The acquisition of these specimens is believed to make the Museum collection of fossil insects the largest in the United States, if not in the world.

To the division of physical and chemical geology there were added a collection of platiniferous rocks from the Demidoff mines of Russia, presented by Mr. Juarez Sponville; a series of rocks illustrating the occurrence and association of diamonds at the De Beers Consolidated Mines, Kimberly, South Africa, donated by Mr. Gardner F. Williams, manager of the mines; a beautiful nugget of native silver, from Mr. A. L. Pellegrin, of Nogales, Arizona; a specimen of diamond-bearing gravel from Minas Geraes, Brazil, to which a small diamond was attached, from Dr. O. A. Derby, of São Paulo, and a fine mass of amethystine quartz, weighing about 400 pounds, taken from the extraordinary geode discovered a few years ago in Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil.

The division of minerals was enriched by a large collection illustrating the occurrence and association of zeolites and siliceous minerals in the trap rocks of New Jersey, obtained through the assistance of Dr. W. S. Disbrow, of Newark, New Jersey, who also transmitted one of the first known crystals of American spodumene obtained in the early part of the nineteenth century. Other important gifts were a specimen of pink spodumene used as gem material, from Mr. F. M. Sickler; a series of artificial stones used in the gem trade, from Mr. Oscar T. Jonassohn; a cut turquoise from North Carolina, from Mr. Eugene A. Smith, and some fine specimens of smoky quartz from Montana, from Messrs. A. P. Pohndorf and J. R. Wharton.

For the meteorite collection specimens illustrating the Trenzano fall, the Franceville, Missouri, iron, the Mukerop, South Africa, iron, and the Finnmarken pallasite were acquired.

Of invertebrate fossils, the accession next in importance to those transferred by the U. S. Geological Survey was the last portion of the E. O. Ulrich collection, containing about 15,000 specimens, including 500 lots of original types or of specimens that have been used for illustration. A series of Lower Silurian fossils, selected by Mr. Charles

Schuchert while in Russia, was presented by the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg, through the cooperation of Dr. Frederich von Schmidt, and a valuable donation consisting of nearly 600 specimens of Hamilton brachiopods was received from the Yale University Museum. By exchange with the Zoological Museum of the University of Copenhagen more than a hundred specimens of identified European mesozoic and tertiary bryozoans were obtained.

To the collection of fossil vertebrates were added fine specimens of pterodactyl, ichthyosaurus, and teleosaurus; some fishes from the lithographic limestone, and a fossil skull of *Bison alleni* from a placer deposit of frozen gravel, 25 feet below the surface. The object last mentioned is especially noteworthy as being the first specimen of the species discovered in Alaska. It was secured through the efforts of Gen. Timothy E. Wilcox, U. S. A. (retired), and was presented to the Museum by Mr. Donald McLean, of Rampart City, Alaska.

One hundred and thirty-two fossil plants, collected from the higher beds of the anthracite series, were donated by Mr. C. W. Unger, of Pottsville, Pennsylvania, and 190 specimens of fossil plants from Illinois, Ohio, and other localities, forming part of the Carl Rominger collection, were also obtained.

The approximate number of specimens received by the Museum during the year and the total number in the possession of the Museum at the close of the year are recorded in the following table:

Department.	Number of specimens received in 1903–04.	Total.
Anthropology:		
Ethnology	2,392	480,456
Historic archeology	115	2,338
Historic religions		2,769
Prehistoric archeology	12,474	387,455
Technology	826	32,019
Graphic arts		8,896
Medicine	1	6,890
History	892	43,940
Physical anthropology	2,374	5,144
Ceramics	2	4,612
Photography	28	1,828
Music	17	1,642
Biology:		
Mammals	2,210	84,645
Birds	2,591	136,226
Birds' eggs	1,085	65,130
Reptiles and batrachians	2,308	46,733
Fishes	4,000	161,501
Mollusks	33,618	962,655
Insects	58,953	1,582,637
Marine invertebrates	2,465	521,191
Helminthology	157	5,894

Department.	Number of specimens received in 1903–4.	Total
Biology—Continued.		
Comparative anatomy	86	16,031
Plants	43,800	608,205
Forestry		749
Geology:		
Physical and chemical	1,717	80,276
Mineralogy	1,020	36,898
Invertebrate paleontology	68,000	.....
Vertebrate paleontology	35	611,733
Paleobotany	361	.....
Total	241,527	5,898,493

The number of entries made in the catalogue books of the various departments was 51,904.

The number of accessions received annually since 1881 is as follows:

Year.	Accession Nos. (inclusive).	Number of accessions during the year.
1881	9890–11000	1,111
1882	11001–12500	1,500
1883	12501–13900	1,400
1884	13901–15550	1,650
1885, January to June	15551–16208	658
1886	16209–17704	1,496
1887	17705–19350	1,646
1888	19351–20831	1,481
1889	20832–22178	1,347
1890	22179–23340	1,162
1891	23341–24527	1,187
1892	24528–25884	1,357
1893	25885–27150	1,266
1894	27151–28311	1,161
1895	28312–29534	1,228
1896	29535–30833	1,299
1897	30834–32300	1,467
1898	32301–33741	1,441
1899	33742–35238	1,497
1900	35239–36705	1,467
1901	36706–38175	1,470
1902	38176–39584	1,409
1903	39585–41227	1,643
1904	41228–42930	1,703

GENERAL WORK UPON THE COLLECTIONS.

The primary work of the Museum staff is the care and preservation of the collections. With the large accessions constantly received, this is also the most important and the most onerous of all the duties

devolving upon the employees. So diverse and so full of detail is this branch of administration that it would be quite impossible to discuss the subject adequately in this connection, but some idea of its extent and complexities may be obtained from the reports of the head curators.

The packages as received have to be unpacked and their contents assorted in accordance with the departments or divisions to which the specimens belong. A complete record of each accession is made and retained in the office of registration. In the various divisions to which they are then transferred the specimens are labeled, numbered, and catalogued serially, after which they are arranged in cases or in storage, their safety and convenience of reference being presumably secured by these several acts. Unless they come identified they may be named at once, but the work of classification goes on slowly for the most part, and years sometimes elapse before a collection can be thoroughly identified and described, as noted under the head of "Researches."

As a part of general museum work may be included the duties of the preparators in preparing, poisoning, and mounting specimens; in extracting fossils from their matrix, in cutting rock specimens to a convenient size, and making thin sections to show their structure; in modeling and arranging lay-figure groups, and in many other directions.

In the Department of Anthropology, where the objects average larger than in other departments, there has long been greater need for the use of outside storage, but during the year considerable inside storage has been gained by the building of racks and shelves back of exhibition cases. This has afforded some relief, and permitted the overhauling and improvement of the reserve collection. Through cooperation with the Bureau of American Ethnology, the work of photographing, singly or in groups, the members of Indian delegations, which have lately been numerous, has been so increased as to greatly enlarge the fine portrait series of American natives started several years ago.

The Department of Anthropology has two preparators' laboratories, one for the making of models of objects of various classes, mostly ethnologic, for filling out the Museum series of exhibits and for exchange purposes, the other concerned with the making of replicas of Museum specimens in plaster. During the year 45 models were completed in the former, while in the latter an exceptionally large amount of work was accomplished, the regular preparators being assisted by two other skilled workmen especially employed in connection with the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. Molds of 120 of the most important archeological objects in the National Museum were made, and from these several sets of casts were obtained, one, properly colored, being installed with the Museum's exhibit at

St. Louis, the others held for exchange. These replicas are executed with the utmost care, and one set has been photographed along with the originals for distribution to the museums with which exchanges are arranged. The same force of preparators also built models of a number of the ruined buildings of Mexico and Yucatan, five of these being completed and exhibited at St. Louis. In the same laboratory there were also made during the year twenty masks, besides other castings of Indians belonging to delegations which visited Washington during the season, and from these castings a number of busts have been prepared, both for the Museum and for exchange.

In the several divisions of the Department of Biology not only has the material obtained during the year received the attention required to insure its safety, but much has also been done toward improving the condition of older parts of the collections. The staff is, however, altogether too small to handle these large collections satisfactorily, and the limited storage and laboratory quarters prevent that arrangement of specimens which would make them readily accessible for reference or study. The latter difficulty is soon to be overcome, and it is hoped that the former also may. In the division of mammals 6,760 skulls were cleaned, a necessary preliminary to the study of the specimens of this group. A large number of skins were made over, and some additional cases for the arrangement of the reserve series were provided. The entire collection of mammals is now in as good condition as the means will allow, but very much remains to be done. No special improvement is to be noted in the condition of the bird collection, as the space allotted to it has long been overcrowded. The identification, labeling, and cataloguing of specimens has continued. In a general way the same may be said of the other biological divisions, but it should be recognized that in all the preservation of specimens has been as carefully looked after as the circumstances permit, and practically everywhere their condition is good. The mollusks, to which much attention has been given, are mostly labeled and accessible. The collection of insects, one of the largest and most valuable in the world, was never so well preserved and arranged as it is at present, rapid progress having been made in the transfer of specimens to the new hermetically-closing drawers. Much of the work with this group is being performed by volunteers, members of the entomological section of the Department of Agriculture, whose assistance is to the advantage of both bureaus. The condition of the varied collections in the division of marine invertebrates was greatly improved, a large amount of cataloguing having been done, and many sets of duplicates put up for distribution. The helminthological collections, considered to be the finest in the country for study purposes, has been maintained in good condition.

In the division of plants much activity has prevailed. Eighty-six insect-proof cases were installed, increasing the entire number of this kind to 341, all of which have been found to answer their purpose perfectly. These additions and changes in furniture, which afford secure storage for a very large proportion of the collection, have necessitated an extended rearrangement of specimens, which is still in progress. The number of specimens mounted during the year was 29,700; of sheets stamped and recorded, 21,000.

The collections generally in the Department of Geology are reported to be in a fairly satisfactory condition, and not less than 100,000 specimens have been put away in final Museum shape, but large accessions have rendered it impossible to keep the numbering, complete labeling, and cataloguing of material up to date. The working out of fossil vertebrates from the rocks in which they are embedded has received continued attention, but the progress in this direction has been necessarily slow, and it is evident that the staff of preparators must be increased if prompt results are desired. The entire lithological study series has been overhauled and catalogued in card form, and upward of 300 thin rock sections have been made. Card catalogues of the entire mineralogical and of other geological collections are in course of preparation, and an annotated list of the types belonging to the Department of Geology, several thousand in number, is also under way.

The preparation of 500 duplicate sets of fossil invertebrates, in which not less than 60,000 specimens will be used for distribution to educational establishments in the United States, was nearing completion at the close of the year.

THE EXHIBITION COLLECTIONS.

In the Department of Anthropology a few cases have been added in the northwest court gallery for an exhibit of Indian baskets, this subject having gained special prominence through the publication of Prof. O. T. Mason's recent paper on "Aboriginal American Basketry." The series of lamps, illustrating the development of means of illumination, has also been extended. A beginning has been made toward illustrating the ethnology of the Philippines, in which has been utilized the collection recently obtained by Dr. E. A. Mearns, U. S. Army, on the island of Mindanao, and the ethnology of Malaysia through the important contributions of Dr. W. L. Abbott. The collection of musical instruments, now one of the most important in the world, has been partly reinstalled. A typical series of muskets, rifles, and carbines, mostly deposited by the War Department, and three table cases of revolvers and pistols of various makes and dates, have been arranged in the east hall.

A new mahogany case has been provided for the original Francis life-saving car, an object of deep interest to all visitors, and in another suitable case has been installed the cylinder of the Hornblower engine,

the first steam engine set up on the Western Continent, having been imported from England in 1753 for pumping water from the copper mines of Col. John Schuyler, Belleville, New Jersey. A very useful addition to the time-keeping series consists of two clocks from the Chelsea Clock Company, of Boston, which have been connected with the service of the U. S. Naval Observatory. Interesting historical relics deposited by the Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution have been added to the cases assigned to that society.

Several groups of ethnological lay figures returned from recent expositions have been installed wherever a place could be found for them, some having been arranged in the lecture hall.

With a view to unifying the work of installation in the Department of Biology, this entire subject was placed in charge of Mr. F. A. Lucas, the curator of comparative anatomy. But little was done toward preparing new exhibits in this department, however, owing to the arrangements in progress for the St. Louis Exposition. Some of the more valuable birds were remounted, and four groups of game birds were installed in two new special cases at the entrance to the Smithsonian building. Additional casts of fishes for the series in the southeast range of the Museum building are being prepared, and a beginning has been made toward the installation of a series of specimens illustrating the mollusk fauna of the District of Columbia, one such case having already been completed. The installation of the systematic series of insects has been nearly finished.

A series of illustrations of corals and coral reefs from Saville Kent's work on the Great Barrier Coral Reef of Australia has been framed and placed with the exhibition of corals in the west hall of the Smithsonian building. Many specimens in the different exhibition collections have been renewed, and there is a generally improved appearance in nearly all the exhibits of this Department.

To the display collection in the Department of Geology have been added skulls of *Diplodocus*, *Trachodon*, and of two genera of *Ceratopsia*, one being the type of *Triceratops calicornis* and the other representing a new genus of the dinosaurs. The mounted skeleton of a specimen of *Sycornis casuarinus* from New Zealand has also been installed.

A noteworthy addition to the exhibits in geology is a geological section on a scale of 2 miles to the inch across the United States from the coast of North Carolina to a point near San Francisco. This model has been the work of two years. The specimens in all other divisions of this department have been more or less overhauled during the year, especially in the lithological and mineralogical series, and improvements have been made in the exhibit of invertebrate fossils, but lack of room prevents any noteworthy additions to or expansion of these collections.

RESEARCHES.

Of the material which reaches the Museum a part has previously been studied and a part not. The act founding the establishment provides that the collections shall be arranged and classified, and therefore in selecting the care-takers, persons skilled in the various branches represented are chosen. It is recognized that their first obligation is to look out for the safety of the specimens, and as the technical staff under pay is relatively small, attention to this duty consumes the greater part of their time. About one-half of this staff consists of volunteers employed in other bureaus of the Government on whom the same demands can not be made, though some of these are equally attentive to the routine work. The scientific results accomplished each year by the paid employees of the Museum is, nevertheless, relatively extensive, comprising mainly the identification, labeling, and descriptions of specimens, and their classified arrangement in cases and drawers so as to make them convenient for reference.

For a large part of the scientific work, however, assistance must be obtained from experts connected with other establishments throughout the United States and in Europe. Entire groups of specimens may be assigned to individuals for study, or advantage taken of researches in progress elsewhere to have material of greater or less extent identified, and visiting scientific men are often willing to spend some time upon such parts of the collections as come within their knowledge.

It is impossible within the limits of this report to account for all the work of this character carried on during the past year, but the number of persons concerned, not including those on the Museum staff, was in the neighborhood of 200, and over 20,000 specimens were sent away for study. This cooperation is far greatest in connection with the Department of Biology, whose varied collections have long attracted a widespread interest and have led to many extensive and important investigations.

In the Department of Anthropology considerable progress was made by the Head Curator and his assistants in studying the ethnological collections sent to the Museum during the past ten years by Dr. William L. Abbott from the southern part of Asia and its adjacent islands. Mr. William H. Holmes has continued his work of monographing the mines and quarries of the American aborigines. Dr. A. F. Hrdlicka conducted extensive researches in different branches of physical anthropology. Further investigations in the subjects of primitive heating, illumination, cooking devices, etc., have been carried on by Dr. Walter Hough. Mr. Paul Beckwith has begun the preparation of a descriptive catalogue of the Grant relics in the National Museum and a catalogue of ancient coins. The collection of swords has also been catalogued.

Mr. George C. Maynard has given much time toward unraveling the history of the old locomotive Stourbridge Lion, and has also been engaged on a history of firearms.

The collections of the Department of Anthropology have been examined by many persons, some of whom have made important studies for official and other purposes. Among these investigators may mentioned the Statistician of the United States Bureau of Immigration; Prof. C. S. Sherrington, of University College, Liverpool, England; Miss Voorhees, of Indiana, who examined the prehistoric European collections; Miss Marie Ruef Hofer, of Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York; Mr. John P. S. Neligh, Columbus, Georgia, who is interested in the study of Indian textile art; Mrs. J. Wells Champney, who is gathering information regarding the Abenaki tribe; Judge James Wickersham, of Eagle City, Alaska, who is investigating the industries and social customs of the Indians of that region; Mr. Ole Solberg, of Christiania, Norway, who is making studies in preparation for an investigation of the social customs of the Hopi Indians; Lieut. W. E. W. McKinlay, U. S. Army, detailed by the Division of Military Information to obtain data to assist in compiling grammars and dictionaries of some of the Philippine languages; Mr. Stewart Culin, Curator of Ethnology in the Brooklyn Institute, to whom specimens were also lent for the purpose of reporting upon Indian games for the Bureau of American Ethnology; Dr. H. M. Whelpley, of St. Louis, Missouri, who studied material for a paper on catlinite pipes, and Mr. E. A. Forward, of the Victoria and Albert Museum, London, who is interested in the history of the Stourbridge Lion already referred to.

In connection with the Department of Biology research work was extensively carried on both by members of the Museum staff and by others. Dr. F. W. True, the Head Curator, completed his important monograph on the whalebone whales of the western North Atlantic, which will appear in Volume XXXIII of the Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge, and he also published four shorter papers on cetaceans. Mr. Gerrit S. Miller, jr., assistant curator of mammals, has continued his studies on Dr. William L. Abbott's large collection of mammals from the Malay Archipelago, having finished one paper on the subject during the year, descriptive of 70 new species, including 1 new genus and 6 new species of monkeys, 2 new species of mouse deer, and 6 new species of flying lemurs. He also prepared several smaller papers and continued work on a new classification of the bats. Dr. Marcus W. Lyon, jr., aid in mammals, completed a revision of the hares and their allies, based upon a detailed study of their anatomical and other characters.

Among those who had access to the mammal collections or to whom specimens were sent for examination were Dr. J. A. Allen, of the

American Museum of Natural History; Mr. J. A. G. Rehn, of the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences; Dr. D. G. Elliot, of the Field Columbian Museum; Mr. Outram Bangs, of the Museum of Comparative Zoology; Prof. Burt G. Wilder, of Cornell University, and the members of the Biological Survey of the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Mr. Robert Ridgway, curator of birds, continued with little interruption the preparation of his comprehensive monograph on the Birds of North and Middle America, completing the manuscript for Volume III, and a large part of that for Volume IV, beside two small papers on new genera and species of birds. In making the measurements of specimens for his monograph he was assisted by Mr. J. H. Riley, aid, who also published three notes on birds from the Bahama Islands. Dr. Charles W. Richmond, assistant curator of birds, finished the identification of the majority of the birds collected by Dr. W. L. Abbott on the islands off the western coast of Sumatra, prepared a list of the species obtained by Doctor Abbott and Mr. C. B. Kloss on Anambas and Tambelans islands, China Sea, and at Tringana, Malay Archipelago, and was the author of several notes on zoological nomenclature.

The collection of birds was consulted by Dr. R. M. Strong and Prof. C. O. Whitman, of the University of Chicago; Mr. Elliot Blackwelder, of Chicago; Mr. Jonathan Dwight, jr., of New York; Mr. Outram Bangs; Mr. Frank Chapman, of the American Museum of Natural History; the Biological Survey, and the Committee on Nomenclature of the American Ornithologists' Union.

Studies on the reptile fauna of eastern Asia were carried on by Dr. Leonhard Stejneger, curator of reptiles, who also worked up the collection of reptiles brought from Japan by Dr. Hugh M. Smith, Deputy Commissioner of Fisheries, and from the Bahamas by Mr. J. H. Riley, as a member of the expedition of the Baltimore Geographical Society. Doctor Stejneger likewise prepared a general account of the herpetology of the Bahama Islands and several small papers, and, in conjunction with Mr. Vernon Bailey, identified the Museum collection of reptiles from Texas. His report on the proceedings of the Fifth International Zoological Congress at Berlin, during August, 1901, at which he represented the National Museum, was received during the year. Facilities were afforded Prof. W. P. Hay, of Howard University, for studying the diamond back-terrapin for the Bureau of Fisheries.

Mr. Barton A. Bean, assistant curator of fishes, reported on the fishes collected on the expedition of the Baltimore Geographical Society to the Bahama Islands, comprising 165 species, identified the specimens obtained by the Senff Expedition to the Nile in 1899, and prepared notes on material from North Carolina and the Barbados. The collections in this division were also consulted by Dr. Theodore Gill,

an associate of the Museum; Dr. David S. Jordan and Dr. C. H. Gilbert, of Leland Stanford Junior University; Dr. C. H. Eigenmann, of Indiana University, and the scientific staff of the U. S. Bureau of Fisheries.

Among the results accomplished by Dr. William H. Dall, honorary curator of mollusks, may be noted reviews of the nomenclature of the Pupacea, and of the history and classification of the Tritons and Trog-shells, a summary of the recent and fossil land shells of the Bahama Islands, and a number of other papers, some prepared in conjunction with Mr. Paul Bartsch, aid in mollusks. He also began upon a general review of the land and fresh-water mollusks of Alaska and adjacent regions. Mr. Bartsch continued work on the family Pyramidellidæ, and published descriptions of new species of Scissurella and Sonorella, a note on Limax, and an account of the herons living in the District of Columbia. The Pacific coast Pectinidæ were studied by Mr. Ralph Arnold, of the United States Geological Survey, and the recent and fossil Pleurotomidæ by Col. Thomas L. Casey, U. S. Army. The collection of Achatinellas was sent to Prof. Alpheus Hyatt, of the Boston Society of Natural History, and after his death was turned over to Dr. A. G. Mayer, of the Brooklyn Institute, who is to complete his investigation of this group.

The staff of the division of insects, including its honorary members, has to its credit a total of 114 papers published during the year, but not nearly all of these related to Museum material or were issued by the Museum. The authors were Dr. L. O. Howard, honorary curator; Dr. W. H. Ashmead, assistant curator; Dr. H. G. Dyar, Mr. D. W. Coquillett, and Mr. Nathan Banks, custodians, Mr. R. P. Currie, aid, and Mr. A. N. Caudell. Doctor Ashmead continued his work on the classification of the Hymenoptera and has published his generic revision of the entire order except the ants, or superfamily Formicoidea, which will probably soon be completed. He has also worked up all the Japanese and Philippine Hymenoptera now in the Museum, and papers on this subject will shortly appear in the Proceedings of the Museum. His most important paper of the year was a classification of the Chalcid flies. Among the thirty-one papers prepared by Doctor Dyar, the most noteworthy was one of 160 pages on the Lepidoptera of the Kootenai district of British Columbia. Mr. Coquillett's researches related mainly to the diptera, and those of Mr. Banks to the spiders.

Studies were made as follows by visitors to the Museum: On the Lepidoptera, by Prof. J. B. Smith, of Rutger's College, Dr. J. W. Holland, of the Carnegie Museum, Mr. W. D. Kearfott, of New York, and Mr. William Schaus, of London; on the Arachnidæ by Mr. J. H. Emerton, of Boston, and Prof. R. V. Chamberlain, of Cornell University; on the Coleoptera by Mr. C. Schaeffer, of Brooklyn, Dr. Henry Skinner, of Philadelphia, and others. Several physicians have

examined the collection of mosquito larvæ, and the Carnegie Institution has had the use of the specimens of *Polistes*, a genus of social or paper-making wasps. The number of loans of specimens was large, the principal being of Coleoptera to Dr. F. E. Blaisdell, San Francisco, California; of Orthoptera to Mr. J. A. G. Rehn, of the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences; of Rhynchota to Prof. P. R. Uhler, of Baltimore; and of Diptera to Prof. James S. Hine, of the Ohio State University.

Dr. James E. Benedict, assistant curator of marine invertebrates, continued his studies on the anomouran crustaceans, two papers, a revision of the genus Lepidopa, and descriptions of new albuneids, being published during the year. Miss M. J. Rathbun, assistant curator, completed the monograph of the fresh-water crabs (Potamonidæ) on which she has been engaged for some time, and which is being printed in the Archives of the Paris Museum of Natural History. She also continued work on the crabs of Hawaii, preparing a paper on this subject for the U. S. Bureau of Fisheries, and one on the decapod crustaceans of the northwest coast of North America for the Harriman Alaska expedition. Dr. Harriet Richardson, collaborator in marine invertebrates, also finished a report, published in the same series, on the isopod crustaceans of the northwest coast, besides an account of the isopods obtained on the Alaskan expedition of the Bureau of Fisheries in 1903. She has since begun upon a manual of the North American Isopoda. Mr. T. Wayland Vaughan, custodian of madreporarian corals, has made notable progress in the study of that group as represented in the Museum, having paid special attention to the collections from the Hawaiian Islands. Dr. C. W. Stiles, custodian of the helminthological collections, completed his investigation of the hookworm disease in the Southern States, and began upon a study of "spotted fever" in Montana.

A number of specialists connected with other institutions are engaged in working up several groups of marine invertebrates as follows: Prof. Charles L. Edwards, of Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut, the pedate holothurians; Prof. Hubert Lyman Clark, of Olivet College, Michigan, the apodal holothurians; Prof. C. C. Nutting, of the University of Iowa, the hydroids, of which reports on the Plumularidæ and Sertularidæ have been published; Dr. Charles B. Wilson, of the State Normal School, Westfield, Massachusetts, the parasitic copepods; Dr. K. W. Genthe, of Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut, the free swimming copepods; Dr. R. W. Sharpe, of Wilmette, Illinois, the Ostracoda; Dr. W. T. Calman, of the British Museum of Natural History, the cumacea; Dr. H. Coutière, École Supérieure de Pharmacie, Paris, the Alpheidæ. Besides material supplied to the above, specimens from the collections made during the investigations of 1903 by the Bureau of Fisheries into the Alaskan salmon fishery and elsewhere have been sent out as follows: The parasitic copepods

to Dr. Charles B. Wilson; the Pycnogonidæ to Dr. Leon J. Cole, of Cambridge, Massachusetts; the Schizopoda to Dr. A. E. Ortmann, of the Carnegie Museum; the Amphipoda to Dr. J. S. Holmes, of the University of Michigan; and the Cirripedia to Prof. H. A. Pilsbury, of the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences. A large number of Bering Sea and arctic starfishes have been supplied to Prof. A. E. Verrill, of Yale University, for examination in connection with a report on the starfishes of the Harriman Alaska Expedition; several lots of actinians to Dr. J. E. Duerden, of the University of Michigan, who is preparing a report on the Hawaiian species for the Bureau of Fisheries; and specimens of echini and isopods to Dr. T. H. Mortensen and Dr. H. J. Nansen, respectively, of the Zoological Museum of Copenhagen, Denmark.

Mr. F. V. Coville, curator of the division of plants, has published several papers which are cited in Appendix III. Dr. J. N. Rose, assistant curator, has continued his studies on Mexican and Central American plants. He has also, in conjunction with Dr. N. L. Britton, director of the New York Botanical Garden, conducted investigations relative to the North American Crassulaceæ and has begun to work up the cacti of North America, a research which is expected to occupy four or five years. A preliminary paper on the Crassulaceæ and one by Doctor Rose on a new species of Begonia have appeared during the year. Mr. W. R. Maxon, aid, has given special attention to the specimens of ferns received from the Philippine Islands, and Mr. E. S. Steele, to the genus Laciniaria. Dr. E. L. Greene, appointed associate in botany near the close of the year, has engaged in various lines of systematic work. The Carices have been the subject of study by Mr. Theodor Holm, of Brookland, District of Columbia, and the specimens of the genus *Plantago* by Prof. E. L. Morris, of the Washington High School. The collections have been frequently consulted by several members of the botanical staff of the Department of Agriculture.

There were 43 loans of plants, aggregating 2,873 specimens, the principal ones being as follows: A large collection from the Philippine Islands to Dr. Janet Perkins, Berlin Botanical Gardens; a collection of Mexican plants to Dr. B. L. Robinson, of the Gray Herbarium, Harvard University; specimens of pines to Mr. George R. Shaw, of the Arnold Arboretum, Jamaica Plains, Massachusetts; and specimens of orchids to Mr. Oakes Ames, of the Ames Botanical Laboratory, North Easton, Massachusetts.

The Head Curator of Geology, Doctor Merrill, has supervised the work of an economic survey relating to the building and ornamental stones of North Carolina, and as an expert special agent of the last census has completed a report on stone quarries. A collection of rocks brought from the Nugsuaks Peninsula, Greenland, and the occurrence

of unakite near Milams Gap, Virginia, have been described by Mr. William C. Phalen, while many rare minerals and a meteorite from Persimmon Creek, North Carolina, have been the subject of study by Mr. Wirt Tassin. Researches on the Rochester shale bryozoa have been continued by Mr. R. S. Bassler, and two papers on Paleozoic bryozoa have been completed by Mr. E. O. Ulrich in conjunction with Mr. Bassler. An account of all the Middle Devonian crinoids in the Museum collections has been prepared by Miss Elvira Wood, of the U. S. Geological Survey.

Material from the collection of vertebrate paleontology has been utilized by Prof. H. F. Osborn, of the American Museum of Natural History, in his work on the Titanotherium; by Mr. J. B. Hatcher, of the Carnegie Museum, in his study of Triceratops, and by Mr. F. A. Lucas, of the National Museum, in connection with his researches on Stegosaurus. Besides the investigations carried on by the paleobotanists of the U. S. Geological Survey, some studies have been made on the fossil plants by Dr. Arthur Hollick, of the New York Botanical Garden; the Rev. H. Herzer, of Marietta, Ohio; and Mr. E. W. Berry, of Passaic, New Jersey. Dr. Thomas L. Watkins, of Denison University, Ohio, has made use of the collections in applied geology.

Specimens in various branches of geology and paleontology have been sent to the following persons to assist them in their investigations: Doctor Handlirsch, of the K. K. Naturhistorisches Hofmuseum, Vienna; Mr. John M. Clarke, of the New York State Museum; Prof. W. B. Clark, of Johns Hopkins University; Prof. C. H. Hitchcock, of Dartmouth College; Prof. Edwin G. Kirk, of Columbia University; Dr. George F. Kunz, of New York City; Mr. P. E. Raymond, of New Haven, Connecticut; Mr. Thomas L. Watson, of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute; Mr. S. F. Emmons, of the U. S. Geological Survey, and Mr. Frank Springer and Dr. H. N. Stokes, of the U. S. Bureau of Standards.

EXPLORATIONS.

But few explorations were carried on last year by members of the Museum staff. Dr. Walter Hough spent some time in Arizona and New Mexico, where he made a large collection of ethnological and archeological objects. Botanical field work was carried on in Mexico by Dr. J. N. Rose, and in Jamaica by Mr. W. R. Maxon. The expedition sent to the Bahamas during the summer of 1903 by the Baltimore Geographical Society and Johns Hopkins University, under the direction of Dr. G. B. Shattuck, was accompanied by Mr. Barton A. Bean and Mr. J. H. Riley, who took an active part in the work of collecting and observation. Dr. Harrison G. Dyar and Mr. Rolla P.

Currie were members of a party sent to British Columbia by the Carnegie Museum, of Pittsburg, and returned with large collections of insects. During a trip to Europe Mr. Charles Schuchert secured some valuable fossils, and, while seeking material for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, Dr. George P. Merrill obtained for the Museum many geological specimens on the Pacific coast and in Canada and western Mexico.

Having been designated by the State Department and the Smithsonian Institution as delegates to the International Congress of Zoology to be held at Berne, Switzerland, during the summer of 1904, Dr. Leonhard Stejneger and Mr. Gerrit S. Miller, jr., left Washington in May, with the object also of making collections of mammals and reptiles in Europe, and of identifying unclassified material by comparison with specimens in certain European museums. A number of short collecting trips were also made by other members of the staff.

There have been many explorations by private individuals and by other Government bureaus through which the Museum has profited. A few of these may be noted. Dr. William L. Abbott has continued his field work in Sumatra, the Mentawei Archipelago, and along the coast and on the islands east of Sumatra, and, as usual, has contributed his specimens to the National Museum. In connection with the investigations of the Bureau of Fisheries, Dr. Hugh M. Smith has visited Japan, and Dr. B. W. Evermann, Prof. Charles H. Gilbert, and Prof. O. P. Jenkins have made extensive explorations in Hawaii. The natural history bureaus of the Department of Agriculture, and especially the Biological Survey, have made important collections in different parts of the United States. Field work under the Bureau of American Ethnology, productive of collections, has been carried on by Dr. J. Walter Fewkes in the West Indies, and by Mr. James Mooney, Mr. Gerard Fowke, Mrs. M. C. Stevenson, and Mr. J. R. Swanton in the West. Reference should also be made to the important work conducted in the Philippine Islands by Dr. E. A. Mearns, U. S. Army, one of the most frequent contributors to the Museum collections.

Collecting outfits were supplied to the following persons outside of the Museum staff: Mr. Vinal N. Edwards, Woods Hole, Massachusetts; Mr. L. H. Aymé, New York City; Dr. J. Walter Fewkes, Bureau of American Ethnology; Dr. Frank Baker, National Zoological Park; Mr. O. M. Meyncke, Belfield, Virginia; Dr. S. P. Bartlett, Quincy, Illinois; Mr. R. S. Johnson, Bellevue, Iowa; Mr. Andrew Allison, Iuka, Mississippi; Mr. E. R. Hodson, Jasper, Texas; Mr. H. D. Burrall, Beaumont, Texas; Mr. Ward Nedwah, Lejolla, California; Dr. J. C. Thompson, U. S. Navy, Bremerton, Washington; Mr. Richard

Willis, Olga, Washington; Mr. Alfred G. Maddren, Seattle, Washington; Dr. E. A. Mearns, Mindanao, Philippine Islands; Dr. J. R. Harris, U. S. Army, Philippine Islands; Mr. Eliot Blackwelder, Tientsin, China; Mr. William Brockway, Piedras Negras, Coahuila, Mexico; Mr. E. A. Goldman, Tehuantepec City, Mexico, and the Rev. Samuel P. Verner, Upper Congo Regions, Africa.

DISTRIBUTION AND EXCHANGE OF SPECIMENS.

In the distribution of duplicate material to educational establishments throughout the country a total of 20,010 specimens was used. These contributions, chiefly to schools and colleges, were comprised in 148 separate lots or sets of objects accurately labeled and adapted for teaching purposes. They consisted of 55 sets of marine invertebrates, 35 of fishes, 10 of geological material illustrating rock weathering and soil formation, 4 of casts of prehistoric stone implements, and 44 of a special and miscellaneous character.

In making exchanges, for which an equivalent is obtained for incorporation in the national collections, 216 lots, aggregating 9,005 specimens, were disposed of. The number of specimens lent to specialists for study amounted to 20,535, comprised in 115 separate sendings.

Among the more important exchanges received from establishments abroad were the following: From the British Museum of Natural History, London, England, a number of alcoholic bats; from the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, England, a large collection of plants from various localities; from the Museum of Natural History, Paris, France, specimens of wasps of the family Vespidæ; from the Royal Botanical Museum, Berlin, Germany, 716 plants; from the Royal Zoological and Anthropological-Ethnographical Museum, Dresden, Germany, 3 skins of Sturnidæ; from the Zoological Museum, University of Copenhagen, Denmark, about 100 species of European mesozoic and tertiary bryozoans, and specimens of living echinoderms; from the First Zoological Institute of the Imperial University, Vienna, Austria, fishes and reptiles collected in North Africa, Asia Minor, and other localities; from the K. K. Naturhistorisches Hofmuseum, Vienna, a collection of mesozoic and tertiary bryozoans and ostracods from eighteen European localities; from the Kongelige Frederiks Universitet, Christiania, Norway, specimens of reptiles and batrachians from Madagascar, South Africa, Australia, and Formosa; from the Museum of the Imperial University, Moscow, Russia, 5 casts of *Mastodon borsoni;* from the Royal Botanic Garden, Sibpur, Calcutta, India, 143 plants from India; from Albany Museum, Grahamstown, South Africa, 2 elands; from Hope Gardens, near Kingston, Jamaica, specimens of ferns (*Asplenium*).

The material obtained in exchange from individuals abroad was as follows: From L. Chevallier, Precigné, Sarthe, France, 342 Algerian plants; from Dr. Aristides Brezina, Vienna, Austria, a fragment of the Trenzano meteorite, weighing 164 grams; from Mr. Julius Bohm, Vienna, Austria, a piece of meteoric stony iron from Finnmarken, weighing 595 grams; from Mr. Cecil Seymour Browne, Anacapri, Italy, a collection of Lepidoptera; from Mr. A. Berger, La Mortola, Ventimiglia, Italy, 31 plants; from Rev. R. P. Longin Navas, S. J., Colegio del Salvador, Zaragoza, Spain, a collection of Neuropteroid insects from Spain; from Maj. Charles G. Nurse, Nineteenth Bombay Infantry, Quetta, Baluchistan, India, 130 species of Hymenoptera; from Prof. N. S. Jambunathan, Native College, Madura, India, 52 specimens of spiders from India.

VISITORS.

The Museum building was visited during the year by 220,778 persons, and the Smithsonian building by 143,988 persons, a daily average of 705 for the former and 460 for the latter. The decrease as compared with the previous year is accounted for by the meeting of the Grand Army of the Republic in October, 1902, during which month alone the attendance amounted to 131,448.

The following tables show, respectively, the attendance during each month of the past year, and for each year beginning with 1881, when the Museum building was first opened to the public.

Number of visitors during the fiscal year 1903–04.

Year and month.	Museum building.	Smithsonian building.
1903.		
July	19,160	11,359
August	25,792	17,181
September	24,408	14,635
October	17,453	12,709
November	13,783	11,252
December	14,634	11,675
1904.		
January	12,621	9,674
February	15,202	8,964
March	20,375	10,922
April	27,838	16,451
May	16,376	10,497
June	13,136	8,669
Total	220,778	143,988
Approximate daily average	705	460

Number of visitors to the Museum and Smithsonian buildings since the opening of the former in 1881.

Year.	Museum building.	Smithsonian building.
1881	150,000	100,000
1882	167,455	152,744
1883	202,188	104,823
1884 (half year)	97,661	45,565
1884–85 [a]	205,026	105,993
1885–86	174,225	88,960
1886–87	216,562	98,552
1887–88	249,665	102,863
1888–89 [a]	374,843	149,618
1889–90	274,324	120,894
1890–91	286,426	111,669
1891–92	269,825	114,817
1892–93 [a]	319,930	174,188
1893–94	195,748	103,910
1894–95	201,744	105,658
1895–96	180,505	103,650
1896–97 [a]	229,606	115,709
1897–98	177,254	99,273
1898–99	192,471	116,912
1899–1900	225,440	133,147
1900–1901 [a]	216,556	151,563
1901–02	173,888	144,107
1902–03	315,307	181,174
1903–04	220,778	143,988
Total	5,317,427	2,869,777

[a] Years of Presidential inaugurations.

MEETINGS AND LECTURES.

During the first half of the year the lecture hall was utilized for the preparation and packing of a part of the exhibits for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. After January 1, 1904, however, it was frequently used for its legitimate purposes.

A series of Saturday afternoon lectures, under the auspices of the Biological Society of Washington, was given as follows:

February 20, Exploration of the Deep Sea, by Mr. Charles H. Townsend; February 27, The Living Forest, by Mr. Gifford Pinchot; March 5, A Naturalist's Winter in Mexico, by Mr. E. W. Nelson; March 12, The Evolution of the Horse, by Prof. Henry F. Osborn; March 19, The Coast Region of Alaska, by Dr. C. Hart Merriam.

The attendance at these lectures varied from 898 to 1,213 persons—far more than the seating capacity of the hall.

The closing exercises of the U. S. Naval Medical School were held here on March 21, and those of the U. S. Army Medical School on April 5.

The American Oriental Society occupied the hall for its annual meeting on April 7 and 8, and the National Academy of Sciences from April 19 to 21, the latter also being given the use of the rooms of the Assistant Secretary for its business sessions.

A lecture entitled "Botanical tramps with a camera," illustrated by stereopticon views, was delivered on June 13, by Dr. C. E. Waters, of Johns Hopkins University, under the auspices of the Wild Flower Preservation Society of America.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The Museum, ever since its establishment, has been looked upon by the general public as the most convenient agency for obtaining information on all subjects within its scope, and scientific men and scientific institutions throughout the country turn to it for aid and advice. All requests of this character, made in evident good faith, have prompt attention, but the work involved, steadily increasing year by year, has become especially heavy and exacting, and consumes much of the time of both the scientific and the clerical staffs. The requests average several daily, are rarely confined to a single subject, and often relate to collections of greater or less size which are sent for identification. They also have reference, in many instances, to the building up and maintenance of collections, the construction of cases, the installation, labeling, and cataloguing of specimens, and other topics connected with museum administration. The replies made to such inquiries during the past year fill about 6,000 pages in the letter-press books, this being entirely apart from the ordinary official correspondence of the Museum, which alone is very extensive.

The correspondence office also has charge of the distribution of publications, the number of which sent out during the year amounted to about 18,000 volumes and 39,000 separate papers.

PUBLICATIONS.

A greater number of publications than usual was issued during the year, owing partly to delays in completing volumes belonging to the previous year. They comprised the annual reports of the Museum for 1901 and 1902; volumes 25, 26, and 27 of the Proceedings; and Part II of Special Bulletin No. 4, entitled "American Hydroids," being a monograph of the family Sertularidæ by Prof. Charles C. Nutting, of the University of Iowa. The last named is a quarto volume of 325 pages and 41 plates, the result of a painstaking and important investigation of collections belonging to this Museum.

The annual report for 1901 was received from the Printing Office on October 6, 1903; that for 1902 on March 12, 1904. The former

contains, besides the administrative report, the following five papers, constituting the general appendix to the volume: "An account of the exhibit of the National Museum at the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo in 1901," by F. W. True, William H. Holmes, and George P. Merrill; "Flint Implements and Fossil Remains from a Sulphur Spring at Afton, Indian Territory," by Mr. William H. Holmes; "Classification and Arrangement of the Exhibits of an Anthropological Museum," by Mr. William H. Holmes; "Archeological Field Work in Northeastern Arizona," by Dr. Walter Hough; "Narrative of a Visit to Indian Tribes of the Purus River, Brazil," by Prof. J. B. Steere. The appendix to the report for 1902 consists of a paper on "Aboriginal American Basketry," by Prof. O. T. Mason; one on the "Herpetology of Porto Rico," by Dr. Leonhard Stejneger; and one on "Wokas, a Primitive Food of the Klamath Indians," by Mr. F. V. Coville.

Of the volumes of Proceedings, No. 25 was issued on July 24, 1903; No. 26 on August 27, 1903; and No. 27 on June 30, 1904. The total number of papers comprised in the three volumes is 107, numbered consecutively from 1275 to 1381, inclusive. They are descriptive, either wholly or in part, of collections belonging to the Museum. The subjects treated of and the number of papers relating to each are as follows: Mammals, 5; birds, 10; reptiles, 2; fishes, 39; insects, 19; marine invertebrates, including mollusks, 21; plants, 4; fossils, 2; meteorites, 2; miscellaneous, 3. The authors are partly members of the Museum staff and partly collaborators connected with other establishments.

The Proceedings papers are first issued separately, in a limited edition, as soon as each can be printed, in order to insure their early distribution. The papers in the annual reports are also published in separate form, but not until the volume is completed. Except for this practice, which has long been followed, it would be impossible to supply the requests of specialists, the completed volumes being mostly distributed to libraries and educational institutions.

In Appendix III will be found the titles of all publications for the year by members of the staff and collaborators of the Museum. The number of papers cited is 315 and the number of authors 89. The papers are grouped by subjects in the following table:

Subject.	Papers by Museum officers.	Papers by other investigators.	Total.
Archeology	8	1	9
Administration	10		10
Bibliography	2		2
Biography	5		5
Biology		1	1
Birds	13	16	29
Botany	10		10
Ethnology	4	4	8
Exploration	2		2
Fishes	14	15	29
Fossils	10	6	16
Geology	4	2	6
Insects	100	21	121
Mammals	21	1	22
Marine invertebrates	7	7	14
Minerals	1		1
Mollusks	16		16
Parasites	1		1
Physical anthropology	3		3
Reptiles and batrachians	5		5
Technology	1		1
Miscellaneous	4		4
Total	241	74	315

Twelve papers on Museum specimens by assistants of the Museum were, by permission of the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, printed in other publications than those of the Institution, as follows:

Casanowicz, I. M.

Oriental and Classical Archeology in the U. S. National Museum: Description of the contents, installation, and arrangement of the Division of Historic Archeology and Religions. Records of the Past. Dec. 12, 1903.

Miller, Gerrit S., Jr.

A New Nataline Bat from the Bahamas. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., Sept. 30, 1903.

A New Squirrel from Lower Siam. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., Nov. 12, 1903.

A New Hare from Greece. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., Nov. 12, 1903,

A Second Specimen of Euderma maculatum. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., Nov. 30, 1903.

Descriptions of Two New Mole Rats. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., Nov. 30, 1903.

Ridgway, Robert.

Descriptions of New Genera, Species, and Subspecies of American Birds. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., Sept. 30, 1903.

Diagnosis of Nine New Forms of American Birds. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., Nov. 30, 1903.

Riley, J. H.

A New Form of Nighthawk from the Bahama Islands. The Auk, October, 1903.

Rose, J. N.

A New Begonia from Mexico. Rep. Mo. Bot. Garden, Jan. 28, 1904.

STEJNEGER, LEONHARD.

A New Hognose Snake from Florida. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash. Sept. 12, 1903.

A New Lizard from the Rio Grande Valley, Texas. Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., Dec. 28, 1903.

The Editorial Office also has charge of other printing than that of the publications, including labels, blanks, stationery, cards, etc., and likewise of the binding of books, which together constitute a very considerable item.

LIBRARY.

The National Museum library has received as a gift from Prof. Otis Tufton Mason, Head Curator of Anthropology, about 2,000 pamphlets, separates and bound volumes, mostly on anthropological subjects, for which a special bookplate has been provided. This is the second generous contribution of the same character from Professor Mason. Dr. Edward L. Greene, recently appointed associate in botany, has deposited his entire botanical library, in connection with his botanical collection, for a period of ten years, the only condition stipulated being that while the books shall be accessible on the same terms as other books in the Museum library they are not to be lent outside the District of Columbia without the consent of Doctor Greene.

The Museum library now contains 20,548 bound volumes and 35,960 unbound papers. The additions during the year consisted of 1,504 books, 3,187 pamphlets, and 700 parts of volumes. There were catalogued 938 books, 2,130 pamphlets, and 11,520 parts of periodicals. The number of cards added to the author's catalogue was 4,090, exclusive of 2,855 cards for books and pamphlets recatalogued. Seventy broken sets of periodicals have been completed or partly so. The number of books, pamphlets, and periodicals borrowed from the general library was 26,456, including 5,679 assigned to the sectional libraries.

There has been no change in the sectional libraries, which are as follows:

Administration.
Administrative assistant.
Anthropology.
Biology.
Birds.
Botany.
Children's room.
Comparative anatomy.
Editor.
Ethnology.
Fishes.
Geology.
History.
Insects.
Mammals.
Marine invertebrates.
Materia medica.
Mesozoic fossils.
Mineralogy.
Mollusks.
Oriental archeology.
Paleobotany.
Parasites.
Photography.
Prehistoric anthropology.
Reptiles.
Stratigraphic paleontology.
Superintendent.
Taxidermy.
Technology.

PHOTOGRAPHY.

The report of the photographer of the Museum, Mr. T. W. Smillie, shows that 1,359 negatives, 3,501 silver prints, 373 platinum prints, 140 velox prints, 79 lantern slides, 2,346 blueprints, and two enlarge-

ments were made during the year. Under the direction of the Secretary, Mr. Smillie also devoted considerable time to recording the flight of birds by means of telephoto cameras stationed at elevated points in the Zoological Park. He likewise rendered assistance to the Civil Service Commission in the examination of applicants for positions in the Government service requiring a practical knowledge of photography.

COOPERATION OF THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENTS OF THE GOVERNMENT.

The Museum has received, as usual, important assistance from several of the Departments and bureaus of the Government. Its relations to the U. S. Geological Survey, the Bureau of Fisheries, the Biological Survey and Divisions of Entomology and Botany of the Department of Agriculture, and the Bureau of American Ethnology, especially in regard to the transfer of collections, have been referred to elsewhere. Officers of the Army and Navy stationed in the new possessions have made valuable contributions, and representatives abroad of the Department of State have been instrumental in securing interesting material. The Departments of War and of the Navy have rendered generous help toward building up the collections of history and of the implements of war, having presented and deposited during the year many objects of exceeding interest and value. The Army Medical Museum has also cooperated most liberally in promoting the welfare of the recently established Division of Physical Anthropology. Special acknowledgments are due to the Quartermasters' Department of the Army for many courtesies in connection with the transportation of specimens and outfits to and from distant points, and to the Treasury Department for the prompt admission and shipment to Washington of specimens received from abroad at several of the custom-houses.

EXPOSITIONS.

Louisiana Purchase Exposition.—The exhibits of the National Museum, together with those of the Smithsonian Institution and of the other Government branches under its direction, were practically all in place in the Government building at St. Louis on the opening day, April 30, 1904. Under the direction of Dr. F. W. True, who represents the Institution and the Museum on the Government board, no pains have been spared to make this display both interesting and noteworthy.

The anthropological exhibits of both the Museum and the Bureau of American Ethnology were assembled under the supervision of Mr. W. H. Holmes, whose principal aim in the former connection has been to illustrate the higher culture of the native American peoples as shown in their arts and industries, the specimens selected being as far as possible the most typical of their kind. Among them are examples of

native architecture, sculpture, ceramics, fabrics, metal work, and of the development in water craft, musical instruments, pipes, ceremonial objects, etc. The most striking feature of the exhibit is a series of five models of ancient Aztec ruins in Mexico; namely, the "Temple of the Cross" at Palenque, Chiapas; the "Temple of the Columns" at Mitla, Oaxaca; the temple of Xochicalco at Morales; the "Castle" at Chichen-Itza, Yucatan; and the "House of the Governor" at Uxmal, Yucatan. The collection also contains a number of plaster casts of some of the most famous religious sculptures of the Assyrians, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans.

In biology the most conspicuous objects are the cast and skeleton of a sulphur-bottom whale, about 80 feet long, taken off the coast of Newfoundland. Many of the larger mammals of the world are represented by especially fine examples of the art of taxidermy, among them being the hippopotamus, rhinoceros, lion, tiger, giraffe, moose, caribou, axis-deer, sambur-stag, antelope, wild sheep, chamois, etc., and many birds of popular interest, such as game birds, birds of paradise, pheasants, the vulture, pelican, etc. A specimen of the curious hoactzin of Guiana, South America, with its nest, eggs, and young, occupies a case by itself, and the great egg of the Æpyornis, a now extinct bird of Madagascar, is represented. Deep-sea fishes and some of the large species of reptiles are shown in the form of models, and there is also a fine display of butterflies, including many large and brilliant forms from tropical America and the Old World. An especially interesting feature is a reproduction of the "Children's Room" in the Smithsonian building at Washington.

The most striking specimens in the Department of Geology are restorations of the large extinct Stegosaur and Triceratops, alongside of which have been placed the skeletons of a mastodon and an elephant, by way of contrast. Dr. George P. Merrill, in charge of this Department, has also brought together a very interesting collection of meteorites, including casts of some of the largest ones known, such as that discovered by Lieutenant Peary in Greenland, and the Bacubarito meteorite found in the State of Sinaloa, Mexico. The mineral exhibit embraces some of the most beautiful varieties from all parts of the world, and is supplemented by two other collections, showing the various forms of silica and of carbonate of calcium. Among the fossil invertebrates are many interesting forms, and among the vertebrates are fishes, reptiles, a pterodactyl, and a complete skeleton of a moa, a large extinct flightless bird.

The official report upon the exposition by Doctor True will appear in the next annual report.

Lewis and Clark Exposition.—On April 13, 1904, the President of the United States approved the bill (S. 276) providing for the celebra-

tion of the one-hundredth anniversary of the exploration of the Oregon country by Captains Meriwether Lewis and William Clark. The bill authorizes a Government exhibit in this connection, and appropriates $200,000 for its preparation, as well as $250,000 for a building.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES.

At the Ninth International Geological Congress, held at Vienna, Austria, from August 20 to 27, 1903, the Smithsonian Institution and National Museum were represented by Mr. Charles Schuchert, assistant curator of stratigraphic paleontology. The total attendance at this congress from the United States was 22, papers being read by three of the number, namely, Prof. C. R. Van Hise, of the University of Wisconsin; Mr. Bailey Willis, of the U. S. Geological Survey, and Dr. E. O. Hovey, of the American Museum of Natural History.

Delegates appointed before the end of the fiscal year to congresses to be held during the summer of 1904 were as follows: Dr. Leonhard Stejneger, curator of reptiles and batrachians, Mr. Gerrit S. Miller, jr., assistant curator of mammals, and Dr. C. W. Stiles, custodian of the helminthological collections, to the Sixth International Congress of Zoology, at Berne, Switzerland, during August; and Mr. William H. Holmes, Chief of the Bureau of American Ethnology, to the Congress of Americanists at Stuttgart, during the same month. These same persons were also designated by the Department of State as official representatives of the United States.

Dr. Paul Haupt, honorary curator of historic archeology, was appointed, on April 30, 1904, to represent the Smithsonian Institution and National Museum at the Fourteenth International Congress of Orientalists, to be held in Algiers in April, 1905.

ORGANIZATION AND STAFF.

The classification of the scientific departments of the Museum remains as indicated in the report for last year, with the following exceptions: The title of the "division of religions" has been changed to "division of historic religions," with Dr. Cyrus Adler as honorary curator, and the former "section of historic religious ceremonials" has been abolished. That of the "division of history and biography" has been changed to "division of history," with Mr. A. Howard Clark as honorary curator and Mr. Paul Beckwith as assistant curator, the "section of American history" being omitted. The "section of electricity" has been abolished, Mr. George C. Maynard, who was in charge of that section, being the assistant curator of the division of technology.

Mr. William H. Holmes, formerly Head Curator of the Department of Anthropology, but now Chief of the Bureau of American Ethnology, has accepted the position of honorary curator of the division of prehistoric archeology, and Mr. J. D. McGuire, also of the Bureau of Ethnology, that of collaborator in the same division. Other appointments have been made as follows: Dr. Edward L. Greene, formerly professor of botany in the Catholic University of America, associate in botany; Mr. Paul Brockett, custodian of the division of graphic arts, and Mr. J. S. Goldsmith as superintendent of construction and labor, being a part of the service performed by the late Dr. J. E. Watkins. The appointment of Mr. Walter L. Hahn, as aid in the division of mammals, in 1902–03, inadvertently failed to receive mention in the last report.

A number of members of the scientific staff have severed their connection with the Museum, all at their own volition, to accept positions elsewhere at higher compensation. Among these were Mr. F. A. Lucas, curator of comparative anatomy, who has become curator-in-chief of the Museum of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences; Mr. Louis Pollard, assistant curator in the division of plants; Mr. Rolla P. Currie, aid in the division of insects; and Mr. W. C. Phalen, aid, Messrs. R. S. Bassler and Alvan S. Stewart, preparators, in the Department of Geology.

Dr. Marcus W. Lyon, jr., of the division of mammals, who on November 1, 1902, was temporarily transferred to the service of the Smithsonian Institution and its bureaus in connection with the exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition as chief special agent, is still employed in that capacity.

NECROLOGY.

It is with deep regret that I have to record the death, on August 11, 1903, of Dr. J. Elfreth Watkins, whose official connection with the National Museum extended almost continuously over a period of nearly twenty years.

Dr. Watkins was born in Ben Lomond, Virginia, on May 17, 1852, his parents being Dr. Francis B. Watkins and Mary Elfreth. He was a descendant of Thomas Watkins, who, during the War of the Revolution, aided in organizing a troop of cavalry, while on his mother's side he was connected with Timothy Matlack, known as the "Fighting Quaker," a member of the Committee on Safety in Pennsylvania, and later a delegate to the Continental Congress from 1780 to 1787; and also with John Elfreth, who served in the Philadelphia City Troops in 1814.

After receiving an academic education at Tremont Seminary in

Morristown, Pennsylvania, young Watkins entered Lafayette College, from which he was graduated in 1871, with the degrees of C. E. and M. S. He then became connected, as mining engineer, with the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company, remaining one year, after which he entered the employ of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company as assistant engineer of construction. In 1873 he was disabled for field work by an accident, which resulted in the loss of his right leg. Upon his recovery he was assigned to the Amboy division of the Pennsylvania road. In the same year he was appointed chief clerk of the Camden and Atlantic Railroad, and a year later was reassigned to the Amboy division of the Pennsylvania Railroad, which position he held until 1886, two years after the beginning of his connection with the National Museum.

His first connection with the Museum was in 1884, when he was appointed "honorary curator of transportation." In 1886 he accepted a salaried position in the service of the Museum, to which he devoted all of his time until 1892, when he returned to the Pennsylvania Railroad Company and at once began the preparation of its exhibits for the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago. Later he was placed in charge of the Department of Industrial Arts in the Field Columbian Museum, a direct outgrowth of the exposition. He remained there only one year, however, coming back to Washington in 1895 to fill the positions of curator of mechanical technology and superintendent of buildings in the National Museum, which he held until his death.

In 1891 he became very active in promoting the interests of the Patent Centennial Celebration held in Washington, and served as secretary of the executive committee.

Doctor Watkins was a member of several patriotic and other societies, including the American Society of Civil Engineers, the Society of Colonial Wars, the Society of the Sons of the Revolution, the Society of the War of 1812, and the Philosophical Society of Washington. In recognition of his standing among authorities on the history of the mechanical arts the Stevens Institute of Technology conferred upon him the degree of "doctor of engineering" in 1900.

Among the best known of his published writings are "Beginnings of Engineering" (1888); "The Development of the Rail and Track" (1889); "The Log of the Savannah" (1890); and "Transportation and Lifting of Heavy Bodies by the Ancients" (1898). His most extensive literary undertaking was the compilation of the history of the Pennsylvania Railroad from 1845 to 1896 (as yet unpublished), which also constitutes a very complete exposition of the general subject of railroad transportation in the United States during the half century.

Mr. Henry Marshall, taxidermist of the division of birds, during a period of nearly thirty years, died on May 26, 1904. He was born at

Oldham, Yorkshire County, England, in 1823 and in 1846 emigrated to America, soon thereafter purchasing a farm at Laurel, Maryland, which remained his home until the time of his death. He first engaged in business as a machinist, in partnership with a brother; but having when a young man learned taxidermy, he cultivated it as a recreation and partly as a matter of business, many colleges and other public institutions being supplied with specimens of his handiwork. In 1875 he was appointed to the position of taxidermist in the National Museum, where he continued in service until stricken with paralysis on July 16, 1901.

REPORTS OF HEAD CURATORS.

REPORT ON THE DEPARTMENT OF ANTHROPOLOGY.....By Otis T. Mason.
REPORT ON THE DEPARTMENT OF BIOLOGY.....By Frederick W. True.
REPORT ON THE DEPARTMENT OF GEOLOGY.....By George P. Merrill.

REPORT ON THE DEPARTMENT OF ANTHROPOLOGY FOR THE YEAR 1903–04.

By Otis T. Mason,
Acting Head Curator.

The work of the year has been devoted to the care of specimens in hand and of new materials daily arriving, to finding safe and accessible storage for collections not on exhibition; but, more than all, to making the department useful "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge."

Although the specimens received number over 5,000 less than in the previous year, when 24,319 were catalogued, they were on the whole as valuable, for the reason that besides those acquired without definite aim very many were secured for the purpose of perfecting old series or of making new ones to illustrate special points in anthropology. Some of the more valuable accessions are here enumerated:

GIFTS.

The W. L. Abbott collection, numbering 1,377 specimens from the Malay Peninsula, northern Sumatra, and the adjacent archipelago, adds materially to the resources of the Museum from this almost virgin area. These, with his gatherings in former years from the East Indies and other parts of Asia, form a most valuable addition to the Museum, and constitute the basis of a monograph on the ethnology of the regions explored by Doctor Abbott, now in course of preparation by Professor Mason and Doctor Hough. The collection illustrates the arts of the people of this region, who are especially skillful in the use of plant and vegetable materials, of which the most serviceable is rattan. Besides the ethnological, there are also specimens in physical anthropology, consisting of Moro skulls and monkey and ape brains.

Of unusual interest and value is the collection of 278 ancient Egyptian chipped stone specimens presented by Mr. H. W. Seton-Karr, which includes crescent-shaped implements, leaf-shaped and semilunar blades, spearheads, saws, scrapers, a fine collection of arrow points with extremely long barbes, knives with handles in one piece, and a number of specialized forms for cutting. Mr. Seton-Karr writes:

> They are all from the Fayum, and are of a type mainly peculiar to that district. They were found in the desert about 10 miles from present cultivation, the ancient prehistoric lake having a much higher level than the dynastic or, of course, the present one.

There was also secured a large and representative series of archeological specimens, part of a bequest to the U. S. National Museum, in 1898, by the late I. H. Harris, of Waynesville, Ohio. The archeological portion was placed in the division of prehistoric archeology, and consists mainly of stone implements, including hammer stones, pestles, mortars, grooved axes, polished hatchets, discoidal stones, polished stone amulets, beads, pipes, leaf-shaped blades, arrow points and spearheads, scrapers, drills, shell beads, carvings, and a limited number of copper implements and ornaments. A catalogue was furnished, giving exact data for a portion of the collection. A number of other specimens had the locality marked upon them, and from this source as well as from letters and memoranda, it is shown that the material was obtained mainly from a few spots in the Miami Valley, Ohio. There is, in addition, a typical series of earthenware vessels from mounds near Charleston, Missouri. The whole embraces 8,533 numbers, although several lots of small flakes and fragments are counted as one number.

The ethnological and historical collections from the Philippine Islands presented to the Museum by Dr. E. A. Mearns, U. S. Army, are especially interesting and valuable from the fact that they were secured personally in the campaign against the Moros of Mindanao by an experienced observer. They comprise many specimens not heretofore in the National Museum, and are rich in weapons, basketry, and the fine brasswork for which the Moros are so famous.

An important addition to the historical division is the gilt dress sword presented to Gen. Jacob Brown by the State of New York for services in the war of 1812. This sword was received as a gift from his grandson, Nathan Brown Chase.

Other interesting specimens received during the year are a serenato saxophone, with accessories and instructions, presented by William Tonk & Bro., of New York, which fills a niche in the collection of musical instruments; a rare flintlock pistol with folding bayonet, made by Miles, London, and presented by Mr. Paul E. Beckwith.

A collection of Morse keys, insulators, and other important historical apparatus used on telegraph lines in the United States about 1860, was presented by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company through C. E. McKim, superintendent of telegraphs at Pittsburg; a telegraph switch, invented about 1855 by E. W. Culgan, of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, and used generally throughout the United States up to 1865, presented by Mr. C. S. Greer, of Zanesville, Ohio; a series of specimens illustrating the development of the hand camera, donated by the Eastman Kodak Company, of Rochester, New York; a collection of native firearms from the Philippine Islands, presented by the President of the United States; and a series of heliogravures of Hellenistic por-

traits, useful in connection with the study of the physiognomy of the nations, was given by Theodor Graf, of Vienna, Austria.

PURCHASES.

During the year the Museum acquired by purchase the large archeological collection from various European localities (11,519 specimens), and a smaller collection (7,815 specimens) of American objects, belonging to the estate of the late Dr. Thomas Wilson. The European collection covers a wide range, beginning with the roughly shaped flint implements from the river gravels of England and France, and ending with the more highly elaborated objects of the polished stone age and the bronze age. The more important groups from Europe include objects of stone, bone, pottery, and bronze from the Swiss lakes; a fine series of chipped and polished stone implements from Scandinavia; and pottery and bronzes from Italy. Of the American series, the most notable are the large collection of stone implements, etc., from Fairfax County, Virginia (the Hunter collection); two sets of cache implements, one including 18 leaf-shaped blades of quartzite from Carter County, Tennessee; and 14 large spearheads of quartzite from Pike County, Arkansas.

A collection of 4 house posts and 2 totem poles was purchased from Dr. George A. Dorsey for exhibition at St. Louis. The house posts, hewn from yellow cedar, are very interesting specimens, and were secured personally by Doctor Dorsey from a Tlinkit village. Each pair is 10 feet in height, 2½ feet in breadth, and nearly 4 inches in thickness. The posts are carved, and two of them are of especial interest owing to the fact that they are painted. The totem poles rank among the best examples of wood carving from the Northwest Coast.

Owing to the widespread popular interest in basketry, a number of collections were offered to the Museum, and of these 54 fine examples of Nez Percé, Chemehuevi, and Maidu baskets were purchased from the Fred Harvey collection, rendering more complete the large and valuable series now displayed in the north-west gallery.

A collection of 48 examples of aboriginal art from southeastern Alaska, consisting of carved clubs, knives, figures, dishes, chests, and embroidered blankets, was purchased from Lieut. G. T. Emmons, U. S. Navy, whose long familiarity with the tribes of this region enhances their value.

The purchase of 14 specimens of crania of the Wasco Indians from the Fred Harvey collection made an important addition to the division of physical anthropology.

A series of models of steamboat propellers, dating from 1681 to 1825, and illustrating the development of this feature of marine architecture for that period, were purchased from Mr. Emil Wellauer.

Casts of Assyro-Babylonian, Egyptian, and Græco-Roman sculptures were purchased from various dealers in England, France, Italy, and the United States. In this collection is a stele engraved with the code of laws of the Babylonian King, Hammurabi, which is of peculiar interest, as it aids in portraying the civilization of Babylon more than four thousand years ago.

EXCHANGES.

Among the specimens acquired through exchange during the year may be mentioned copies of rare musical instruments received from Mrs. John Crosby Brown, in exchange for similar material; and 28 specimens illustrative of the folklore of England and Ireland from Edward Lovett, Esq., Croydon, England, in exchange for American Indian specimens.

TRANSFERS AND LOANS.

A very interesting collection numbering 550 specimens was secured by J. Walter Fewkes, of the Bureau of American Ethnology. It includes objects from the islands of Trinidad, Grenada, Cariaco, St. Vincent, Barbados, Dominica, Porto Rico, and Cuba. The most notable of these are stone collars, tripointed stone zemes, earthenware bowls of unique form and decoration, and a series of carved stone masks and amulets. There are also polished hatchets and chisels, axes of the Carib type, sculptured pestles, mortars, beads of stone, shell hatchets, and grotesque heads and faces used as decorations of pottery vessels. This collection was made systematically with a view to working out the ancient connections between the two continents of North and South America.

A large number of archeological objects from various caverns, rock-shelters, and village sites in the Ozark region in Missouri and Arkansas, collected by William H. Holmes, were obtained by transfer from the Bureau of American Ethnology. These include chipped flint implements, ranging from roughly worked pieces and blades to well-finished arrow points, spearheads, and scrapers; hammer and rubbing stones, bone implements, fragments of pottery, pieces of basket work, woven fabrics, twisted cords made from the vegetable fiber, cave breccia containing flints, animal bones (mainly split), and a few human bones. The objects are exceptionally well classified. The position, whether in caves, village sites, bottom lands, etc., is carefully marked, and in addition there are furnished two maps and four charts upon which the different localities are indicated. The collection, which numbers 2,710 specimens, is a notable addition to the Museum, as it represents material from new areas.

The division of physical anthropology has been enriched by over 2,000 crania and skeletons transferred from the Army Medical Museum.

During the last few years the curator of the division of technology has made special effort to increase the series illustrating the development of firearms. Recently there has been lent by Col. Wright Rives a finely finished 44-caliber rifle, made by Henry Deringer, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and often used for target practice by David Crockett and other friends of Mr. Rives. This was the rifle used by W. J. Graves in his duel with Jonathan Cilley in 1838.

There may also be mentioned a valuable series of sporting rifles, collected by Mr. Herman Hollerith in Mitchell County, North Carolina, in 1893, and lent by him to the Museum. These are typical specimens of sporting guns used throughout the United States up to about 1850. They are provided with homemade powderhorns, powder charges, turkey calls, and other appliances, showing the skill of the early backwoodsman.

A collection of rifles, muskets, carbines, and revolvers has been transferred to the National Museum by the Ordnance Office of the War Department. These weapons include, besides the guns manufactured by the Government for many years, fine specimens made by private firms for the Government. There is one remarkable example, which is a 7-barrel flintlock revolving gun, with 11-inch barrels, caliber .50, fastened to a central frame and revolved by hand, to bring each barrel successively under a common flash pan.

Another especially rare and valuable loan from the War Department is the Ferguson breech-loading rifle, which it has been claimed is the only one of its kind in existence. It was invented and patented in England in 1775–76 by Maj. Patrick Ferguson, of the British Army, and was manufactured by Mr. D. Egg, of London. This gun was presented by Major Ferguson to Capt. Frederick de Peyster and bequeathed by him to his son, Gen. John Watts de Peyster.

To the division of history there has been added a number of objects illustrating the colonial and Revolutionary periods, including interesting relics received from Gen. John Watts de Peyster, who has during the last few years presented his Napoleonic library to the Smithsonian Institution. Mention may also be made of the sword and epaulets worn by Gen. Alexander McComb, U. S. Army, a loan from Mrs. F. C. d'Hautville, and of a fine portrait in oil of George Catlin, the Indian portrait painter, received from Mrs. Louise Catlin Kinney. The portrait, which is an excellent likeness, was painted in 1849 by Mr. W. H. Fisk, R. A. It adds much to the interest of the great collection of Indian portraits given to the Museum many years ago.

As a result of the war with Spain in 1898 the Museum has gradually acquired a large number of objects illustrating the history of the peo-

ple of our insular possessions. During the past year Dr. R. B. Grubb, U. S. Army, added to his collection 53 specimens from the Moros of western Mindanao, Philippine Islands, consisting of edged weapons, spears, armor, ceremonial objects, matting and costumes of these interesting and warlike people.

EXPLORATIONS.

Dr. J. Walter Fewkes, of the Bureau of American Ethnology, continued his researches in the West Indies, visiting Cuba, Porto Rico, and other islands as far south as Trinidad. His collection contains many notable objects in carved stone, as zemes, or tripointed idols, masks, amulets, pottery of rare forms, and implements and utensils of hard, finely-polished rock.

Field work in New Mexico and Arizona was carried on by Dr. Walter Hough, assistant curator of the division of ethnology, who succeeded in obtaining a valuable collection of basketry, pottery, stone, bone, wood, and shell implements, weapons, ornaments, and ceremonial objects from a region heretofore unexplored. Ruins near Magdalena, Datil, along the upper Tulerosa River at Frisco, and near Luna, New Mexico, were examined. The last named were excavated and important data and specimens were collected. A reconnoissance of cave and cliff ruins in this region was made and a number of specimens secured. At the close of the work Doctor Hough proceeded northwestward by way of Alpine, Nutrioso, Springerville, and St. Johns, to the Santa Fe Railroad at Holbrook, Arizona. During his trip he traversed a stretch of country 270 miles wide between points on the railroads. The object of Doctor Hough was to cut across lines of north and south migration of peoples in early times, and in this respect much valuable information was gathered.

In May, Mr. George C. Maynard commenced a special investigation of the history of the locomotive "Stourbridge Lion," with a view to clearing up some unsettled questions relating to the authenticity of parts of the locomotive in the custody of the Museum, as well as to determine the whereabouts of other parts now in the possession of private parties. He visited Honesdale, Carbondale, Pittston, Scranton and other places in Pennsylvania, where he obtained much valuable information.

Mr. Paul E. Beckwith, assistant curator in the division of history, acting under special directions from the Assistant Secretary, spent the month of June at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition examining certain anthropological collections.

CARE OF THE COLLECTIONS.

No changes have been made in the method of handling accessions. All collections received during the year have been catalogued and

cared for, and, so far as possible, systematically arranged. Specimens subject to destruction by insects have been poisoned.

Increased space and facilities for preservation and installation were obtained by the finishing of the repairs in the hall of prehistoric archeology, which has been closed for two years; by dismounting many pictures from swinging screens and putting the former into the study series; by building additional racks for unit drawers in the hall of history and in the graphic arts storage; by adding to the furniture in the east hall a large gun rack, presented by the War Department; and by building new racks in the laboratory of physical anthropology.

A great deal of time has been spent in labeling the musical instruments, which number nearly fifteen hundred pieces. This collection is in the care of Mr. E. H. Hawley, who has completed an elaborate catalogue of the entire series. It is provided with four sets of labels, as follows:

1. General labels, descriptive of the plan of classification.
2. Case labels, naming the class of instruments in each inclosure.
3. Descriptive labels, explaining the structure and functions of the instruments in each case.
4. Individual labels, giving the native name, the English name, locality and peoples, and collector of each specimen.

The collection has been installed to teach history of thought and of development through inventions, from the simplest monotone device to mark rhythm up to the most elaborate apparatus for musical expression. The exhibit is divided into four grand divisions, according to the structure of the instruments, and the pieces are arranged according to simplicity or supposed order of invention. The divisions may be described as follows:

(I) Vibrating solid, sonorous bodies; (II) vibrating membranes; (III) vibrating strings; (IV) vibrating columns or currents of air.

Musical instruments are put into vibration or functioned: (1) immediately, by human agency only; (2) mediately, by means of devices in the hand; (3) mechanically, through the agency of keyboards and the like, and (4) automatically, by machinery, which demands no skill; (5) Æolian harps and wind bells are vibrated without human agency. There are five methods employed in playing, namely, striking or hammering; picking or twanging; rubbing with the hand, bow, wheel, etc.; blowing; and sympathetically.

The four grand divisions have been mounted, where practicable, so as to indicate geographic and ethnic distribution, and arranged in sets as related to the musical scale. Some advance has been made in the literature of music, but none in collecting portraits of composers, instrument makers, or writers on the subject.

Case and specimen labels were prepared for the series illustrating heating and illuminating and other subjects, and many hundreds of labels were printed for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. Mr. Thomas Sweeny continued the systematic care of the study series.

EXHIBITION AND STUDY SERIES.

The crowded condition of the Museum seriously interferes with the association of the exhibition with the study series. The ideal connection between the two is partly maintained in the northwest range and in a few other parts of the Museum where the student, attracted by a specimen, wishes to go further into the subject, and finds the study series close at hand. But in other exhibits the study material has to be stored away so as to be practically inaccessible.

The exhibits in many of the halls are in a satisfactory condition, being well arranged and well labeled; but in other halls old-fashioned methods still prevail and the labeling is inadequate.

INSTALLATION.

A number of cases were arranged in the northwest gallery, to illustrate the different types of basketry, this subject having attracted much popular attention of late owing to the publication by the National Museum of Professor Mason's monograph on Aboriginal American Basketry. A collection of lamps has been arranged in the east hall, to show the development of illumination. A fine portrait of George Catlin, lent by his daughter, Mrs. Louise Catlin Kinney, was installed in the north-west range amidst the great painter's works. A large number of specimens from the Philippine Islands, from various sources, were set up for exhibition in the gallery of the north-west court. Among these is the Mearns collection from Mindanao. A special studio was set apart for the Abbott collections from Malaysia, with reference to publishing an illustrated account of them. A great deal of time was expended in the installation of musical instruments, now one of the richest in the world. A rare collection of objects illustrating Tibetan religion has been set up and labeled. A walnut case extending along one side of the east hall has been installed with a large collection of muskets, rifles, and carbines, some of which were received from the War Department; and three table-cases, especially fitted up for the exhibition of revolvers and pistols, were also placed in the east hall and filled with a collection of historical military revolvers, and single and double barreled pistols of various dates and types, some of which are not duplicated, so far as known, in any other public or private collection. The original Francis life-saving car was permanently installed in a new mahogany case, especially designed for the purpose; while another was made for the cylinder of the Hornblower

engine, the first steam engine ever erected on the western continent, having been imported from England in 1753, set up by Josiah Hornblower, and used for pumping water from the copper mines of Col. John Schuyler, located opposite Belleville, near Newark, New Jersey. Two clocks received from the Chelsea Clock Company, of Boston, through the courtesy of Charles H. Pearson, treasurer, were placed in the east hall near the telegraph instruments. Here the noon signals are received from the U. S. Naval Observatory, and serve a useful purpose in illustrating to visitors the Government's method of distributing correct time throughout the United States.

The Daughters of the American Revolution have manifested great interest in the historic collections, and cases especially devoted to their contributions have been arranged and labeled.

MODELS AND REPLICAS.

Models of a large number of objects, chiefly ethnologic, have been made under the supervision of the Department for use in filling out the series of exhibits in the Museum and for exchange purposes. A number of replicas in plaster have also been prepared under the direction of Mr. William H. Holmes, including a series of casts of 120 of the most important archeologic objects illustrating the higher achievements of the ancient Mexican peoples. One set of these, carefully colored, was installed with the Museum's exhibit at the St. Louis Exposition, while several additional sets were prepared for exchange with other museums. These replicas have been executed with the greatest care, and one series has been photographed side by side with the original objects for distribution to the museums with which exchanges are contemplated. Up to the present time these include the Field Columbian Museum, Chicago; Carnegie Museum, Pittsburg; Free Museum of Science and Art, Philadelphia; American Museum of Natural History, New York; Museum of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, Brooklyn; Peabody Museum, Cambridge; and also with the following foreign museums: Trocadero Museum, Paris; British Museum, London; Royal Ethnological Museum, Berlin; Royal Museum of Dresden; National Museum of Mexico, and the National Museum of Argentina.

The preparators of this Department, from plans by Mr. Holmes, also constructed models of a number of the ruined buildings of Mexico and Yucatan, five of which were completed and installed with the exhibit prepared for the St. Louis Exposition. These represent the "Pyramid Temple," Xochicalco; the "Temple of the Columns," Mitla; "House of the Governor," Uxmal; "El Castillo," Chichenitza; and the "Temple of the Cross," Palenque. Models are kept of such parts of these as can be cast in plaster for use in preparing replicas.

In the laboratory of this Department twenty masks, besides other

castings of Indians belonging to delegations visiting Washington, have also been made at the expense of the Bureau of American Ethnology, and from these a number of busts have been prepared for the Museum exhibits and for exchange with other museums. Some material has already been received from the Field Columbian Museum, the American Museum of Natural History, and the Royal Ethnological Museum, Berlin, in exchange for casts. It is expected that these exchanges will result in adding greatly to the collections in the National Museum, and at the same time they will enrich the various museums with which arrangements are made.

The work of photographing Indians visiting Washington has been greatly enlarged during the year. By special arrangement whole delegations have visited the Museum, where photographs of them, either singly or in groups, have been made and measurements taken.

RESEARCHES.

In the past ten years, the Museum has been receiving from Dr. William L. Abbott important ethnological collections made by him in the Eastern Continent, especially in southern Malaysia. During last year much time was spent in arranging and classifying this material, and in preparing descriptions and illustrations for publication. The work will be continued during the coming year. Mr. Holmes has continued intermittently the preparation of a monograph on the mines and quarries of the aborigines, based to a large extent upon collections in the division of prehistoric archeology. Mr. Paul Beckwith began a systematic description of the Grant relics in the National Museum, for publication in the form of an illustrated catalogue. He has also prepared a card catalogue of the swords, with the view of studying the evolution of this arm, and has continued his work on a catalogue of the collections of ancient coinage in the Museum.

Doctor Hrdlicka made measurements on negro children and adults, and on 32 Indians belonging to visiting delegations. He continued his studies on the humerus, atlas, cranial fossæ, parietal and malar bones, and also commenced testing the value and effect of various preservatives on the excised brain.

The usefulness of the Department of Anthropology to students and investigators is shown by the number of persons who have derived benefit therefrom. Each year more and more institutions and individuals seek access to these collections, and through the cordial relations thus established the Department has not only contributed to education, but has profited in the increase of its material for study. Among those visiting the Museum for the purpose of carrying on researches in its anthropological material may be mentioned the following:

Professor Sherrington, of the University College, Liverpool, inves-

tigated the negro brains in the collection, in order to determine the relative proportions of the windings of the Rolandic fissure in this race. Miss Voorhees examined the collections from prehistoric Europe in connection with a study on the Man of the Drift Gravels and the Cave Dwellers of France. Miss Marie Ruef Hofer, of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, examined the plan of synoptic series in the Museum as a basis of exercise and manual labor teaching. John P. S. Neligh, of Columbus, Georgia, studied Indian textile art, basketry, beadwork, and weaving, with a view to teaching. Ole Solberg, from Christiania, Norway, spent several days in the Museum, preparing himself for a trip to Arizona, in order to investigate the social customs of the Hopi (Moki); on his return he examined the Eskimo collection, with a view to enlarging his monograph on Eskimo stone implements.

Judge James Wickersham, U. S. District Judge, Eagle City, Alaska, made studies of the works and social customs of the Indians in that region, with a view to deciding their fitness for citizenship, and consulted the division of ethnology on what constitutes civilized tribes, with a view to enfranchising certain tribes of his judicial district. Lieut. William E. W. McKinlay, of the First U. S. Cavalry, having been detailed by the Division of Military Information in the War Department to work up grammars and dictionaries of the chief languages in the Philippines, utilized the resources and methods of the Department of Anthropology to aid him in his labors. Miss Maude Barrows Dutton, Columbia University, New York City, spent February 19 to February 29 in the Museum, gathering illustrations for a series of school readers to show the development of primitive industries. Miss Cora M. Folsom, curator of the museum at Armstrong School, Hampton, Virginia, examined cases, methods of exhibition, and the Museum system of caring for the study series; she also received instructions in cataloguing, poisoning, and other museum work. The Director of the Mint, Mr. George E. Roberts, selected from the Museum twenty-eight coins to illustrate a lecture on numismatics, and transparencies were made for him in the Museum laboratory. Mr. Stewart Culin, curator of the division of ethnology in the Brooklyn Institute, made further studies in the games of the American Indians, with reference to a paper being published by the Bureau of American Ethnology. Miss Grace Nicholson, Pasadena, California, spent the month of June at the Museum, studying the classification and care of basketry; and the Immigration Bureau of the Department of Commerce and Labor, through its statistician, Mr. Wells F. Andrews, consulted the Division of Ethnology for the purpose of obtaining information which would enable the Bureau to classify more exactly by nationality and race the vast number of immigrants into the United States.

The following material was transmitted to students and investigators outside of the Museum: A number of photographs lent to Miss Maude Barrows Dutton, of New York City, for reproduction in a series of text-books prepared under the supervision of the Teachers College, Columbia University; whale tusks, implements connected with whale fishing, and a number of models of fishermen's boats lent to Mr. W. de C. Ravenel, in charge of the exhibit of the Bureau of Fisheries, Department of Commerce and Labor, at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition; a number of arrows from the Natano (Hupa) Indians of California, Indian games (3), Indian tops, and Indian popguns, were lent to Mr. Stewart Culin, to be used in illustrating a paper published by the Bureau of American Ethnology; models of Indian fire-making apparatus were lent to Mr. Gerard Fowke, for the general anthropological exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition; the original Francis life-saving car was lent to the Treasury Department for exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. To Mr. S. W. Stratton, of the Bureau of Standards, for the same purpose, were lent examples of Mexican and Japanese scales, the coin scales of England, and a set of antique silversmith's weights, manufactured in Nuremburg, Germany; from the division of history a number of specimens connected with the military life of Gen. W. T. Sherman were lent, upon the request of Mr. P. T. Sherman, to the U. S. Military Academy, for exhibition at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition; and an interesting case of historical specimens belonging to the Daughters of the American Revolution was sent to the exposition in the care of Mr. Paul Beckwith, for installation.

It is the policy of the Department of Anthropology not to send out valuable specimens to individuals for study, but to invite them to carry on their investigations at the Museum. This course is safer for the collections, and the student himself is thereby brought into touch with other materials of which he probably has had no knowledge.

PLANS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT.

The Acting Head Curator calls attention to the need of additional help in the several divisions. Accessions are multiplied, the correspondence has greatly increased, and yet the same number of men and women have to do the work. These conditions have been recognized and remedied as far as possible by temporary aid.

From Doctor Hough the following observations are received with reference to the plans for the development of the division of ethnology:

> This is the era of collector-dealers in ethnology. Material that falls into their hands is held for sale, so that a museum must enter the lists with money to purchase or must go into the field as a collector. The latter plan tends to build up a museum with the most desirable material, but it requires funds as well as trained men who

must spend part of the time in the field, and part in the care of the specimens. It is also most desirable to foster disinterested collectors, who engage in the work for relaxation without thought of gain. It is the opinion of the Curator that this matter of providing for the purchase of specimens should have attention by the Museum authorities. The interior development of the Division as pursued by the Curator and his assistant has been carried on (1) by the study of correlated objects, publication, and exhibition to the best advantage for educational purposes; (2) by the grouping of ethnic material to show at a glance the life and arts of tribes and peoples; (3) the collection of information regarding specimens and filing such data where it is readily available for students and for lables; (4) the storing of photographic blueprints by subjects. This work is being steadily carried on and is improving the status of the division each year.

Mr. Holmes has planned a sweeping reinstallation of the division of prehistoric archeology. To the exhibits prepared for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition will be assigned the space in the middle of the hall. Mr. Maynard proposes to enlarge the subject of metrology in all its branches, by originals when possible, and also by copies and models of originals. He also will assiduously increase the material in the section of gunnery, for which the time is propitious. In this connection Mr. Maynard has prepared an elaborate classification of the topics under his division. Mr. Brockett plans to very much enlarge the study series in graphic arts by bringing from storage and putting in new drawers much material hitherto unavailable. Doctor Flint, having completed his classification and cataloguing in the division of medicine, will develop his plan on the lines established. In the division of history, Mr. Beckwith will avail himself of the gallery recently assigned to him to enlarge and improve the study series. The assistant curator of the division of physical anthropology, Dr. A. Hrdlicka, makes the following recommendations:

> The time has come when the division of physical anthropology can begin to prepare exhibits of great interest and instructive value, relating on the one hand to the American aborigines, and on the other to man in general. The part concerning the Indian would complete the immense ethnological exhibit; that concerning man in general would be a continuation of the series in biology. To achieve these results, the division is in need of the exclusive services of a modeler. A most important part of the Indian exhibits, and at the same time valuable for exchanges with other museums, would be a series of casts of the natives. For this purpose the modeler should take visiting Indians, and also be sent to do field work. In the biological exhibits, an important rôle would be played by casts of brain and other objects; by representations in plaster of human development and decline; and by showing the numerous types of man. All this will require the constant application of an able modeler through a number of years, and the work can and should be begun at once.

Doctor Hrdlicka also calls attention to the fact that a comprehensive biological survey of the people of the United States is a possibility, though it would be difficult, extend over a number of years, and require a large corps of trained aids. There is no other country that presents more vital problems to be solved by such a survey

than the United States. This is due to the great diversity of its climate and industries; but above all, to the heterogeneity of its constituents. The objects of such a survey would be to investigate the physical status; certain physiological elements; relative fecundity; the effects of racial mixtures; and certain pathological conditions which have important influences on the population. These investigations would have to be prosecuted on (*a*) the various racial divisions of the population; (*b*) the Americans in large cities, as well as those in the rural districts; those living in high and those in low lands; those in the coldest and in the hottest regions; the seamen with extremes in kinds of nourishment; (*c*) all such parts of the population as follow the same mode of physical or mental activity, such as the laborer, specialized artisan, professional athlete, specialized brainworker, the highest class of inventor or original composer; (*d*) such divisions of the population as are continuously subjected to differing social conditions, and (*e*) the defective classes. In order that a survey of this nature should succeed in this country, the very first condition would be to elaborate, as far as possible, in conjunction with the Immigration Bureau and the Census Bureau of the Department of Commerce and Labor, accurate maps representing the racial constituents of the population.

Mr. Hawley proposes to complete his card catalogue of all the types of musical instruments ever used by man; also by exchanges, copies, and models to make the series of specimens complete as to types.

In looking over the stock of material already mounted for exhibition in swinging screens, unit boxes, and special frames, it was found that much of it was piled up in such a way that for years it would be lost not only to the public but also to the student. In the new Museum installation should not be handicapped by faded backgrounds, soiled labels, and discarded furniture. Therefore many hundreds of specimens have been cut from the mountings and returned to the study series, the boxes and frames being sent to storage. In this way the floors of the halls have been cleared of packing boxes. It is purposed to continue this process into spaces now set apart for storage.

The general plan for the Department during the year 1904–5 will be to make the collections still more useful to the students, authors, and teachers. No changes of arrangement are contemplated for the present building, but every effort will be made to perfect the exhibits that will be set up in the new one.

CHANGES IN THE DEPARTMENT.

Owing to the constant growth of the Department of Anthropology, it was deemed wise during the year to make certain changes in its organization, so that at present all divisions of the subject that may be taught and studied by objects are represented. Physiological

psychology is omitted, since its operations consist of experiments. Its apparatus is provided for in the division of technology, under the class of metrics. Language also is omitted, since its investigation is assigned to the Bureau of American Ethnology. The same is to be said of sociology and primitive religions. The closest relationship, however, exists between the two dependencies of the Smithsonian Institution, the Museum, and the Bureau of American Ethnology, since cult objects, the paraphernalia of customs, writings, and inscriptions are tangible things and may be exhibited. Mr. William H. Holmes served as honorary curator, and Mr. J. D. McGuire as collaborator in the division of prehistoric archeology, Mr. E. P. Upham having charge of cataloguing. The division of technology was enlarged to include all phases of handicraft. Mr. Paul Brockett has been made custodian of the division of graphic arts. The division of religions becomes the division of historic religions, the cults of unlettered peoples being assigned to the Bureau of American Ethnology and their cult objects exhibited in the division of ethnology. The division of history and biography becomes the division of history, with Mr. A. H. Clark as honorary curator and Mr. Paul Beckwith, assistant curator. In February Miss Mary Virginia Young was made clerk in the office of the Acting Head Curator, and in April Mr. Richard A. Allen was appointed preparator in the Department.

REPORT ON THE DEPARTMENT OF BIOLOGY FOR THE YEAR 1903–04.

By Frederick W. True,
Head Curator.

The principal event of the year covered by this report was the completion of the exhibit for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition and its installation in St. Louis. Fully two years were occupied in assembling and preparing this exhibit, and the staff of every division of the department, except that of plants, shared in the work to a greater or less extent. The Head Curator, having been placed in charge of the entire exhibit of the Smithsonian Institution, found it impossible to attend at the same time to the regular work of the department, and for about five months the general management devolved upon one of the curators, Dr. L. Stejneger. A full report on the St. Louis exhibit will be submitted next year after the close of the exposition.

The Museum had the good fortune to receive on deposit for ten years the herbarium and botanical library of Prof. E. L. Greene. The herbarium comprises about 60,000 sheets, and is believed to be one of the finest private botanical collections in existence. A detailed statement of the conditions of this deposit will be found in the earlier pages of this Report.

Dr. William L. Abbott continued his generous donations of valuable zoological material collected by him in the East Indies.

The accessions show a substantial increase in most classes, and in mollusks the number of lots received was double that of last year. While it is often difficult to estimate with exactness the scientific value of material received, the additions of the year as a whole may be considered as comparing favorably with those of previous years. The principal exceptions were among the lower invertebrates, where the accessions, though more numerous than last year, are reported to be much less important. The birds' eggs were fewer in number and less noteworthy.

About 108,000 zoological specimens and 44,000 botanical specimens were received during the year. The former included about 59,000 insects. Marked improvement was made in the condition of the general collections of mammals and reptiles.

The department is handicapped at present chiefly by the crowded condition of the laboratories and storage quarters and exhibition halls, and the want of a sufficient staff of zoological assistants in the lower grades.

EXHIBITION COLLECTIONS.

The arrangement recently made of combining all work on the exhibition series under one head continued in force during the year with excellent results. On account of the great amount of work required in connection with the exhibit for the St. Louis Exposition, however, the regular exhibition work was brought almost to a standstill. The World's Fair work continued until May, and, on account of belated material, one or two pieces were still in hand during the closing months of the year.

The remounting of especially valuable birds in the exhibition series continued during the year, 13 specimens having been successfully treated. Shortly before its close, two new cases were provided for 4 of the new groups of game birds, located in the entrance hall of the Smithsonian building. In addition, 30 other birds were mounted, 12 dismounted, and 59 skins made up for study purposes. Fourteen pieces of groundwork were made for birds exhibited at St. Louis. In the case of birds mounted during the year, an effort was made to color the bills, feet, and naked portions of the skins as in life. New work was begun on a series of fish casts to fill cases now unoccupied.

A brief summary of the work done for the St. Louis exhibit during the past two years is as follows:

A series of large mammals representing the principal large game animals of the world were mounted, including such huge forms as the giraffe, hippopotamus, rhinoceros, polar bear, and moose. Molds were made in Newfoundland of an adult sulphurbottom whale, 78 feet long, from which a cast in paper was prepared and properly painted. The skeleton of a full-grown whale of this species was also obtained at the same place and mounted in St. Louis. Specimens representing the species of peacocks were mounted, together with a collection of the most beautiful species of pheasants. To these were added a few other birds of remarkable appearance or habits, and a group of the South American hoactzins, which are of special interest from the fact that the young have hooked claws on the wings, by means of which they climb about from branch to branch. Casts of a large python and of several other interesting snakes, such as the cobra, coral snake, rattlesnake, etc., were prepared and painted. A series of enlarged models of the most grotesque or otherwise remarkable deep-sea fishes was prepared from specimens in the National Museum. The synoptic series of invertebrates belonging to the regular exhibition series of the Museum was renovated, enlarged, and thoroughly labeled. A

large series of perfect specimens of the most remarkable butterflies of the world was assembled and arranged for exhibition in unit boxes. A similar series of birds' eggs, representing the largest and the most remarkably colored or shaped eggs were selected from the Museum collection and arranged on newly designed stands. A series of zoological objects attractive to children was prepared for the replica of the Smithsonian "Children's room" which was installed at St. Louis. The whole Museum exhibit was thoroughly labeled, with special reference to the requirements of an exposition.

EXPLORATIONS.

As mentioned in the report of last year, Mr. B. A. Bean and Mr. J. H. Riley accompanied the expedition of the Baltimore Geographical Society to the Bahama Islands in the summer of 1903, and made considerable collections of fishes, birds, reptiles, mammals, and mollusks and other invertebrates. The collection of fishes added to the knowledge of the fauna of the Bahamas and many of the species represented in it were new to the Museum series, as was also the case with the corals and crustaceans.

In the spring of 1904 Mr. William Palmer accompanied Dr. George P. Merrill to the State of Sinaloa, Mexico, for the purpose of making a mold of the great Bacubarito meteorite. While on this expedition, Mr. Palmer collected a few zoological specimens of interest.

Toward the close of the year, Dr. L. Stejneger and Mr. G. S. Miller, jr., were detailed to make faunal collections in the Swiss and Italian Alps, the object being to add to the knowledge of the life zones in that region. Mr. B. A. Bean and an assistant visited Beaufort, North Carolina, in June and collected fishes.

ACCESSIONS.

The number of lots of specimens in all classes received during the year covered by this report was greater than last year, and in the case of mollusks, as already noted, almost double. Birds' eggs were less numerous and less important, and the lower invertebrates, though more numerous than last year, were of much less interest scientifically. So far as plants are concerned, the accessions (numbering 555), though somewhat less numerous than last year, exceeded those of any other year since 1895. Of zoological specimens, the total number received was about 107,473, including about 59,000 insects. Of plants, the accessions aggregated 43,800 specimens, as compared with 35,000 in 1903 and 53,500 in 1902. The purchases of plants comprised 10,000 specimens.

The largest transaction of the year, as regards specimens, was, as already mentioned, the deposit by Prof. E. L. Greene of his very

important herbarium, comprising about 60,000 sheets, and his botanical library, numbering about 2,000 volumes. This valuable acquisition will open new opportunities to systematic botanists in the United States of which they will, without doubt, hasten to avail themselves. The details regarding this important deposit will be found in the report of the Assistant Secretary.

Mrs. T. A. Williams, of Memphis, Nebraska, presented some 15,000 plants from various localities in the United States, consisting of the duplicates from Mr. Williams's herbarium. She also signified her intention to deposit the herbarium itself, now in the George Washington University, but the actual transfer had not been effected at the close of the year on account of press of other Museum business.

Of zoological material, the largest accession was a collection of about 40,000 insects obtained by Messrs. Dyar, Currie, and Caudell in British Columbia. Next in order are the collections received through the Bureau of Fisheries, Department of Commerce and Labor. These comprised about 12,000 land and fresh-water shells and about 670 reptiles from Indiana and other parts of the eastern United States and 3,000 marine mollusks, chiefly from Alaska, preserved in alcohol. The Bureau also transmitted the types of a considerable number of recently-described fishes from the Hawaiian Islands, Japan, and other localities, with other specimens of fishes and also large collections of crustaceans and stony corals, which were obtained during the investigation of the salmon fisheries of Alaska in 1903. In addition, the Bureau transmitted a large series of crayfishes and shrimps from Lake Maxinkuckee, Indiana, collected by Dr. B. W. Evermann and assistants in 1899 and 1900, and also 461 plants collected in Alaska and Oregon.

Special attention is again to be directed to the importance of the collections made by Dr. W. L. Abbott in the East Indies and very generously presented by him to the National Museum. During the year the collections received were those from the Mentawei Archipelago, off the west coast of Sumatra, and from the coast and islands of eastern Sumatra. The mammals from the Mentawi Archipelago comprised about 500 specimens, including 31 new forms, among which were a new genus and species of gibbon, named *Simias concolor* by Mr. G. S. Miller, jr., and another new gibbon, which Mr. Miller has named *Symphalangus klossi* in honor of Dr. Abbott's associate, Mr. C. B. Kloss. The birds from the archipelago number 572 specimens, including several new species and many rare ones, such as the pigeon *Columba grisea*, the cuckoo *Urococcyx æneicauda*, etc. The collection from eastern Sumatra comprises 371 mammals, 202 birds, and 83 reptiles and batrachians. The mammals have not yet been identified, but among the birds and reptiles are known to be numerous forms not

previously represented in the National Museum and very valuable for comparison. Some new species are quite likely to be detected later.

Dr. E. A. Mearns, U. S. Army, added to his previous donations a number of valuable lots of specimens, comprising 155 mammals from Minnesota, 274 birds from the Philippine Islands, including many rarities, various mollusks, and (conjointly with his son) some interesting birds' eggs.

Through an arrangement with the Baltimore Geographical Society, Messrs. B. A. Bean and J. H. Riley, of the Museum scientific staff, made an excellent miscellaneous zoological collection in the Bahama Islands, including many desiderata, especially among fishes. Of the 110 species of fishes obtained, many were previously unknown as belonging to the fauna of the Bahamas or were unrepresented in the national collections. Of mammals, 181 specimens were obtained, of which one species was undescribed; of birds, 156 specimens, including a new subspecies of night hawk and the second known specimen of the woodpecker *Centurus nyeanus;* of reptiles, 73 specimens, including a new large iguana, described by Dr. L. Stejneger under the name of *Cyclura rileyi.*

The Biological Survey, U. S. Department of Agriculture, transmitted some valuable birds' eggs and a collection of 377 reptiles from Texas, the result of several years' collecting and the basis of a paper by Mr. Vernon Bailey on the reptile fauna of the State. One new species of lizard in this collection was described by Doctor Stejneger under the name of *Sceloporus merriami.*

Capt. Wirt Robinson, U. S. Army, presented a collection of bats from Cuba and a number of interesting birds. Some 215 birds, a collection of land shells, and about 3,600 insects, together with 34 mammals, from the mountains of Venezuela were purchased from Mr. M. S. Briceño. Among the former were many rare humming-birds.

A collection of 56 bats and 323 birds from Barbuda and Antigua islands was purchased from Mr. H. Selwyn Branch. The birds represent the fauna of these islands with a great degree of completeness, and comprise several forms not previously known to occur there, as well as a new species of warbler.

Mammals.—Besides the specimens included in the foregoing miscellaneous collections, mention should be made of a number of accessions consisting solely of mammals. Mr. E. O. Wooton, of Mesilla Park, New Mexico, presented the second known specimen of a remarkable bat belonging to the fauna of the United States, known as *Euderma maculatum.*

A jaguar killed in Texas was purchased from Mr. H. P. Attwater. This is the first authentic specimen of the jaguar from the United

States, though the range of the species was considered as including the southern part of that State.

A specimen of the very rare mouse-deer, *Tragulus stanleyanus*, was purchased from M. Émile Deschamps.

A miscellaneous collection of Old World mammals, including representatives of two new species, was purchased from Mr. W. Schlüter.

A collection of Japanese mammals was purchased from Mr. T. Tsuchida. A large collection of bats from Vera Cruz, Mexico, was purchased, and by exchange with the British Museum six exceptionally rare bats, belonging to genera not represented in the national collection, were acquired. By exchange with the American Museum of Natural History, a collection of 51 Colombian mammals was obtained.

Birds.—In addition to the birds presented by Doctors Abbott and Mearns, and those acquired from the Biological Survey and the Baltimore Geographical Society above mentioned, a few other especially interesting accessions deserve notice. Mr. Homer Davenport, of East Orange, New Jersey, presented 26 young pheasants. Pheasants in these early stages, which are valuable in the study of the arrangement of feathers, are difficult to obtain. Mr. N. C. Brown, of Portland, Maine, presented an especially well-prepared series of 267 birds from South Carolina. By exchange with the Philippine Museum, at Manila, an excellent series of well-prepared Philippine birds, comprising about 200 specimens, was obtained. Four species of birds-of-paradise not previously represented in the national collection were purchased, as well as 215 specimens of birds from the mountains of Venezuela, comprising several species new to the Museum and including many specimens valuable for comparison in connection with the work on "Birds of North and Middle America." Some of the humming-birds in this collection are rare in museums.

Of birds' eggs, Dr. W. L. Ralph added many interesting specimens to his previous donations, and some excellent specimens were presented by Gen. J. W. Barlow. A collection of rare Mexican eggs and 13 eggs of the hoactzin, also very rare, were purchased.

Reptiles.—Dr. Hugh M. Smith, Deputy Commissioner of Fisheries, presented a collection of 158 reptiles which he collected in Japan. This material has been of much service to Doctor Stejneger, who is engaged in preparing a work on the reptile fauna of Japan. Mr. E. J. Brown, of Lemon City, Florida, presented 17 rare reptiles from southern Florida, among which were specimens of a new species of spreading adder, described by Doctor Stejneger under the name of *Heterodon browni*.

Fishes.—The Stanford University presented 10 lots of fishes from Japan, comprising types and cotypes of species collected and described by Dr. David S. Jordan and Mr. Snyder. One lot of excellently-prepared fishes from Puget Sound was presented by Dr. J. C. Thompson,

U. S. Navy. In order to replenish the collection with fresh material and to obtain duplicate specimens for distribution, Messrs. Bean and McKnew, as already mentioned, visited Beaufort, North Carolina. They obtained a large series of specimens. A specimen of the rare Japanese shark, *Mitsukurina owstoni*, 11 feet long, was purchased.

Mollusks.—Rev. L. T. Chamberlain presented a small collection of rare river mussels, or *Unionidæ*, for addition to extensive earlier contributions. About 2,500 specimens of several species of western American shells were presented by Dr. R. E. C. Stearns, honorary associate in zoology. Mr. E. J. Court, of Washington City, contributed a series of about 2,000 land shells from Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia. From Mr. H. W. Henshaw, of Hilo, Hawaii, was received a very acceptable lot of about 600 Hawaiian land shells, together with a number of other invertebrates. Mr. Dwight Blaney presented some 300 shells dredged near Mount Desert, Maine, and Mr. C. A. Davis a series of specimens, representing about 72 species, from Bermuda, including cotypes of several forms described by the donor. The Museum received as a gift from Mr. H. N. Lowe and Mrs. Blanche Trask, of California, some small lots of very acceptable Californian shells, which were needed to fill gaps in the series.

Several purchases of mollusks were made during the year in addition to the lot from the mountains of Venezuela referred to. Among these should be mentioned a series of about 2,500 Japanese land and marine mollusks, representing 487 species; a large series of unusually rare or beautiful land shells, comprising 252 species; a fine *Voluta pulchra*, and a large collection of land shells from the coast and islands of California. The latter was obtained from Mr. Henry Hemphill, and is commented on by Doctor Dall as follows:

> The series sent by Mr. Hemphill is nearly 50 per cent larger than was called for by the agreement, and may to that extent be regarded as almost a donation. The material comprises a thoroughly representative series showing the various mutations, varieties, and species in which the coast is so rich, including the pleistocene forms when they occur, and illustrating in a remarkable manner the flexibility of what have been regarded as species. There were in all 649 lots of specimens, representing as many distinct varieties or mutations.

Lower invertebrates.—A collection of sea-urchins, chiefly from the Gulf of Siam and the Ingolf dredgings, was obtained by exchange from the Zoological Museum, Copenhagen, Denmark. Dr. K. Kishinouye presented 11 specimens of four species of Japanese precious coral, showing the different varieties. Three of the specimens were cotypes of forms described by Doctor Kishinouye. The National Museum of Brazil presented cotypes of the shrimp *Nephrops rubellus*, and of the stomatopod crustacean *Pseudosquilla braziliensis*. Mr. H. N. Lowe, of Long Beach, California, presented a collection of crustaceans from Catalina and San Clemente islands, among which

were found two new species and several rare ones. In a small collection of Mexican fresh-water crabs received from the U. S. Biological Survey, one new species was discovered. Specimens of an undescribed species of isopod crustacean, and of *Branchipus*, were presented by Mr. George E. Morris, of Waltham, Massachusetts. Through exchange with the Museum of Comparative Zoology, Cambridge, Massachusetts, five specimens (four species) of crabs from the Hawaiian Islands, all new to the Museum collection and two new to science, were obtained. By purchase from Émile Deschamps, San José, California, the Museum procured miscellaneous invertebrates from Shanghai, a locality scarcely at all represented in our collections.

Insects.—The accessions of insects numbered 377, comprising 58,953 specimens, as compared with 250 accessions, comprising 37,684 specimens, last year, a grafifying increase both in number and in quality of material.

Mr. E. A. Schwarz added to the donations of previous years a collection of 6,300 Coleoptera, Lepidoptera, etc., from Texas. Prof. T. D. A. Cockerell presented a large collection of insects from Colorado and 325 specimens from New Mexico. Mr. C. F. Baker, of Claremont, California, presented a large collection of Diptera. The members of the Washington Biologists' Field Club who are interested in entomology collected and presented to the Museum about 3,400 miscellaneous insects from the grounds of the club at Plummers Island, Maryland. A valuable collection of Lepidoptera from British Columbia was presented by Mr. E. M. Anderson, of the Provincial Museum, Victoria. Two large collections of British Columbia insects, comprising in all about 40,000 specimens, were collected by Messrs. Dyar, Currie, and Caudell.

A miscellaneous collection of Peruvian insects was presented by Mrs. M. J. Pusey, of Callao, Peru, and Mr. Edward A. Klages donated a collection of Venezuelan beetles. Two excellent series of Japanese Hymenoptera were the gift of Prof. S. Matsamura, of Sapporo. Two collections from India deserve notice here—a series of Hymenoptera presented by Maj. C. G. Nurse, and a series of spiders presented by Prof. N. Jambunathan. Sir George Hampson, of the British Museum, presented a collection of Norwegian Lepidoptera.

Four lots of Philippine insects were donated by the Rev. W. A. Stanton, of Manila. Another Philippine collection of importance was received as a gift from Mr. R. C. McGregor, of the Philippine Museum, Manila.

The Washington Agricultural College presented, through Prof. C. V. Piper, a large collection of Diptera, containing types of Tipulidæ described by Mr. Doane. A collection of Diptera containing types of Poridæ was presented by Mr. C. T. Brues, of Paris, Texas. Twelve

cotypes of species of spiders were the gift of Mr. Theodore Scheffer, of Manhattan, Kansas.

Among the purchases of the year were three important lots of South American insects, including one from Paraguay and one from Venezuela; also a miscellaneous collection from Australia.

The U. S. Department of Agriculture transmitted two lots of miscellaneous insects comprising 6,054 specimens, of which 4,500 were collected by Mr. E. A. Schwarz in Cuba.

Plants.—The accessions to the National Herbarium during the year numbered 555, which is considerably above the average for the last thirteen years, though somewhat exceeded last year. The specimens numbered 43,800, or about 9,000 more than last year. The deposit of Professor Greene's herbarium and the large accession from Mrs. T. A. Williams have already been mentioned (pp. 79, 80). Following these should probably be placed the accessions from the Philippine insular bureau of agriculture, Manila, which aggregate 3,360 specimens. These were received in exchange. Other important exchanges with the New York Botanical Garden, resulting in the acquisition of 1,317 specimens, were effected during the year. These were from Jamaica and other islands of the West Indies, and from Colorado. By exchange with the Royal Botanical Gardens, Kew, London, 278 plants from Europe, India, and other Old World regions were obtained. Mr. C. V. Piper, of Pullman, Washington, presented 658 plants from that State. An interesting collection from Mexico, comprising 139 specimens, was presented by Mr. E. W. D. Holway, of Minneapolis, Minnesota. Mr. William Palmer, of the Museum staff, collected 328 plants in Newfoundland while engaged in making molds of a whale at the Balena whaling station.

About 10,000 plants were purchased from outside the United States. The series acquired in this manner were 773 specimens from Australia, 1,606 specimens from Mexico, 471 from Nicaragua, and 109 from Costa Rica. Important purchases of plants of the United States were as follows: Utah, Wyoming, and Nevada, 1,402; California, 1,269; Virginia, 325; Texas and Arkansas, 280; Florida, 212; Oregon, 204.

The national herbarium received from the Department of Agriculture 68 accessions, comprising 1,870 specimens, among which the most important were the collections made in Texas by Mr. Arthur Howell (74 specimens), by Mr. Fred G. Plummer in New Mexico and Oklahoma (97 specimens), and by Mr. Vernon Bailey, also in New Mexico (165 specimens).

The plants transmitted by the Bureau of Fisheries have been mentioned (see p. 80). They comprise 461 specimens collected in Alaska and Oregon by Messrs. Gilbert, Evermann, Chamberlain, and others.

WORK ON THE STUDY SERIES.

In the division of mammals the two principal operations which tend toward the preservation and improvement of the great series of specimens reserved for the use of systematic zoologists are the cleaning of skulls and the renovation of skins which have deteriorated on account of the presence of oily matter or from other causes. During the year 1903–4, 6,760 skulls were cleaned, or about 2,700 more than in the preceding year. Somewhat more than two-thirds of these skulls belong to the collection of the Biological Survey, U. S. Department of Agriculture. At the end of the year, 3,000 small and 1,200 large skulls were on hand, for which no contract for cleaning had been made. The importance of this work is due to the fact that at the present time genera and species of mammals are founded largely on cranial characters and measurements, which can only be determined satisfactorily after the skulls have been entirely stripped of the soft parts surrounding or attached to them.

During the year, 289 skins of the smaller species were made over and put in order, and 73 large skins, such as those of deer, antelopes, bears, etc., these being cleaned and tanned.

The condition of the collection as a whole is excellent, but as no new cases for small species were provided no improvement could be made in the systematic arrangement of the material. The large skins are now arranged systematically, but are much overcrowded. During the year the space behind the large exhibition case in the east side of the west hall, about 90 feet in length, was fitted with 274 trays, and the large skulls which are kept there were arranged in systematic order, so that the material is now available. The labeling and arrangement of the alcoholic series was completed during the year, and that part of the collection is in excellent condition.

In the division of birds, on account of lack of assistance and overcrowded quarters, no special progress could be made in improving the general condition of the study series, but many type-specimens were newly labeled, obscure species identified, etc. Some 650 birds sent to the Museum for naming during the year by various institutions and individuals were properly identified, a task which consumed much time. A large amount of material, comprising about 3,500 specimens, was borrowed for use by Mr. R. Ridgway in connection with his manual of North and Middle American birds.

The collection of birds' eggs is reported to be in better condition than ever before. The arrangement of the nests and eggs was much improved during the year.

The study collection of reptiles and batrachians is in a satisfactory condition and the systematic arrangement progressed favorably during the year, though on account of insufficient space many difficulties

are encountered. The entering of the specimens returned to the Museum from the estate of E. D. Cope was completed.

In the division of fishes, the regular routine occupied most of the time. The equipment was improved by the addition of some new tanks, and a number of type-specimens were rebottled and placed with the special series of types.

In the division of mollusks, the arrangement of several families was revised, and a separate series was established for the fauna of the District of Columbia. The collection as a whole is reported as thoroughly accessible and in a good state of preservation.

The honorary curator of the division of insects, Dr. L. O. Howard, reports as follows regarding the insect collections:

The insect collections were never before so admirably arranged or so well preserved as they are to-day. This is due principally to the liberality shown the Division in furnishing so many of the standard insect drawers, and the specialists are now arranging the several orders as rapidly as possible in these drawers.

Doctor Dyar continues his excellent work in naming, arranging, and increasing the Lepidoptera, and deserves special mention for the great work he is doing for this order. It is mainly due to him that the national collection of these insects is now so large and in such splendid systematic order.

Mr. E. A. Schwarz, of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, is another who has contributed more than anyone else to increasing the insect collections in all orders. The Coleoptera, now under his charge, are probably not surpassed in any other museum in this country.

Mr. D. W. Coquillett, of the Department of Agriculture, continues his work on the Diptera and has made many additions to the collection of the past year. The Culicidæ, or the mosquitoes, in the collection are worthy of special mention, as they have been enormously increased the past year in all stages of their development—from egg to wings—and the collection of these insects in the National Museum is probably unequaled in any other museum, except the British Museum.

Mr. Rolla P. Currie, during the present year, has been fully occupied in superintending and perfecting the collection of insects sent to the St. Louis Exposition, and should receive credit for the excellence of that exhibit. Such time, however, as he could spare from this and other work he has devoted to the Neuropteroid insects—Odonata, Neuroptera, and Trichoptera—and the collections of these insects will before a great while be in excellent order and arranged in the standard insect drawers.

Mr. A. N. Caudell, of the Department of Agriculture, has done some excellent work in arranging the Orthoptera, removed last year to Doctor Dyar's room, and now virtually under his charge.

Doctor Ashmead continues his work on the Hymenoptera, and in the coming year hopes to have the whole order arranged in the standard insect drawers. He has published his generic revision of the order, except the ants, or the superfamily Formicoidea. The generic revision of the ants will probably be completed this autumn. He has also worked up all the Japanese and Philippine Hymenoptera now in the National Museum, and papers on these subjects will appear in the Proceedings of the Museum.

The great order Rhynchota still remains without a specialist to take care of it, and almost nothing has been done toward arranging and determining the rich collection of these insects now in the Museum.

In the division of marine invertebrates, a special cataloguer was employed for two and one-half months in bringing up the records of various series, especially the Hawaiian crabs and shrimps, the amphipods of the New England coast, identified by Dr. S. J. Holmes, and the isopods obtained during the investigation of the salmon fisheries of Alaska by the Bureau of Fisheries in 1903. Fifty-one sets of duplicates, each containing about 200 specimens, were distributed, together with several special sets of few specimens each.

As the Helminthological collections are without separate permanent quarters, no special action was taken in connection with them beyond the care required to keep them in good condition. They constitute, according to the custodian, Dr. C. W. Stiles, the finest collection for study purposes in the country.

The work done in the national herbarium is reported on as follows by Mr. F. V. Coville, honorary curator:

During the year we have added 64 standard insect-proof cases, making 312 now in use. In addition, we have added 5 half-units, making 12 now in use. Beside these, we have had constructed 17 three-fourths-unit cases, for storage purposes only. This gives us a total of 7,938 pigeonholes. No insects have been observed in these cases during the last six months, although they have been very bad in other parts of the herbarium. The entire herbarium is now stored in insect-proof cases, except the following groups: Lower cryptogams (exclusive of algæ), the ferns and fern allies and the coniferæ.

Practically all the specimens which have been mounted during the year have been stamped and recorded. The number of specimens stamped and incorporated in the permanent herbarium since its transfer to the National Herbarium on July 1, 1894, is 241,000. Of these, 21,000 have been added the past year.

Owing to our small force, only a little work has been done toward stamping and recording the old part of the herbarium. Our record shows only 429 of these specimens stamped, all of which were loaned for study.

The specimens are recorded in large books, each one of which contains space for 5,000 names. Thirty-five of these have been closed and 13 are still open. Seven new books were opened during the year.

The following table shows the number of plants mounted during the last few years, exclusive of the lower cryptogams:

1898–99	22,556
1899–1900	22,272
1900–1901	18,117
1901–02	18,000
1902–03	21,076
1903–04	29,700

The number of specimens mounted, as is here shown, is 29,700. This is the largest number mounted during the last six years. This large number is due to the fact that some $400 was transferred to our account, which was used in mounting specimens. Of these plants, 24,900 were mounted by contract at a cost of $876, while 3,350 were mounted by the Department of Agriculture.

The rearrangement of the herbarium according to the Engler and Prantl sequence, to which reference was made in the last two annual reports, has been continued. The work has continued from near the end of family No. 105, the Cruciferæ, to the beginning of family No. 246, Gentianaceæ.

COOPERATION OF SPECIALISTS AND LOAN OF COLLECTIONS.

The Museum continued, as in previous years, the custom of lending specimens to specialists engaged in scientific investigations. The activity in this direction among mammalogists was about the same as last year. Seventeen lots, comprising 316 specimens, were sent out to eight persons. Among the specimens were five types. The principal loan consisted of 244 bats, which were sent to Mr. J. A. G. Rehn, of Philadelphia, who is engaged in the study of the American species of this order. Among the remaining classes of vertebrates the transactions of this kind were less numerous, amounting in all to nine or ten lots, comprising somewhat more than 50 specimens.

The loans of insects and lower invertebrates were far more numerous, amounting to more than 5,500 specimens in the case of the former. Among them the most extensive were 1,914 Coleoptera, sent to Dr. F. E. Blaisdell, of San Francisco, California; 1,709 Orthoptera to Mr. J. A. G. Rehn, of Philadelphia; 493 Rhynchota to Prof. P. R. Uhler, of Baltimore; and 440 Diptera, of the family Tabanidæ, to Prof. James S. Hine, of the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

The collections of marine invertebrates made during the investigation of the salmon fishery of Alaska by the Bureau of Fisheries in 1903, were sent to the following specialists for identification and report: Siphonostoma to Prof. Charles B. Wilson; Pycnogonida to Dr. Leon J. Cole; Schizopoda to Dr. A. E. Ortmann; Amphipoda to Dr. S. J. Holmes; Cirripedia to Prof. H. A. Pilsbry. Doctor Ortmann also received the Schizopoda collected by the Bureau of Fisheries steamer *Albatross* in 1891, for use in connection with the report on the collection of 1902. A number of starfishes from Bering Sea and the Arctic Ocean were sent to Prof. A. E. Verrill for use in connection with his report on the starfishes of the Harriman Alaska Expedition. Several lots of actinians were sent to Dr. J. E. Duerden, who is preparing a report for the Bureau of Fisheries on the forms found in the Hawaiian Islands, and also on species held in the claws of certain crabs. Fifty bottles of surface towings from the Woods Hole region were sent to Dr. K. W. Genthe, from which to sort out copepod crustaceans for a report on that group.

The general collection of Cumacea was forwarded to Dr. W. T. Calman of the British Museum for study.

Loans of plants from the National Herbarium were about as numerous as last year, comprising 43 lots, containing 2,873 sheets, as compared with 35 lots, containing 2,704 sheets, sent out in 1902–03. The principal loans were as follows:

To Dr. Janet Perkins, at the Berlin Botanical Garden, 1,150 Philippine plants; to Dr. B. L. Robinson, Gray Herbarium, Harvard University, 423 sheets of Mexican plants and specimens of *Xyris* and

Polygonum; to Dr. Theo. Holm, Brookland, District of Columbia, 277 sheets of *Carex*, *Betula*, *Lychnis*, etc.; to Mr. George R. Shaw, Arnold Arboretum, Jamaica Plains, Massachusetts, 212 specimens of pines; to Mr. Oakes Ames, 219 specimens of orchids.

DISTRIBUTION OF SURPLUS MATERIAL.

As already stated, 51 sets of duplicate specimens of marine invertebrates were distributed during the year. These sets contain about 200 specimens each, representing from 92 to 99 species, and as many different groups as the nature of the material available permits. Of the 10,000 or more specimens, somewhat less than one-half went to high schools, and the remainder to various other public schools, and to universities, colleges, academies, seminaries, institutes, and museums. Eighteen States are represented in this distribution.

LABORATORY USE OF THE COLLECTIONS BY INVESTIGATORS.

The bird collections have been very frequently consulted during the year by ornithologists from different parts of the country. The collections from the Western States were examined by Mrs. Vernon Bailey, of Washington City, who is revising her handbook of western birds. The bluebirds and crested flycatchers were studied by Mr. E. W. Nelson, of the Biological Survey, in connection with a list of Mexican birds which he is preparing. Mr. H. C. Oberholser, of the same Bureau, made almost daily use of the collection in connection with his official work, and also for identifying birds sent in by various correspondents, and in preparing a report for the Museum on Doctor Abbott's collection from Mount Kilima-njaro, East Africa. Prof. W. W. Cooke, another ornithologist of the Survey, examined the North American series in connection with his study of migrations. The entire study series was examined by Dr. R. M. Strong, of the University of Chicago, on points connected with his researches on the structure and color of feathers. The Nomenclature Committee of the American Ornithologists' Union considered the validity of various species and subspecies of North American birds as represented in the collection. Dr. Jonathan Dwight, jr., examined the collection of North American gulls.

In the division of reptiles, Mr. W. P. Hay was given facilities for studying specimens of the diamond-back terrapins, on which he is preparing a report for the Bureau of Fisheries. Mr. Vernon Bailey spent several weeks in studying the reptiles of Texas.

The collection of fishes was frequently consulted by the ichthyologists of the Bureau of Fisheries, especially Messrs. Evermann, Kendall, Goldsborough, and Pope.

Mr. Ralph Arnold made a study of the Western American Pectinidæ, in connection with a monograph of the group which he has in contem-

plation. Col. Thomas L. Caesy, U. S. Army, made an investigation of the fossil and recent Pleurotonidæ for a classification of that family.

Regarding the insect collections, Doctor Howard reports as follows:

Prof. J. B. Smith, of New Brunswick, New Jersey, W. D. Kearfott, of New York, Dr. W. J. Holland, Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, Wm. Schaus, London, England, and others, have consulted the collection of Lepidoptera; John H. Emerton, of Boston, and Prof. R. V. Chamberlain, of Cornell University, made use of the collection of Arachnidæ; C. Schaeffer, of Brooklyn, Dr. Henry Skinner, of Philadelphia, and others, have made studies on our Coleoptera; several physicians have examined our collection of mosquito larvæ. The Carnegie Institute has also had the use of our *Polistæ* for the purpose of illustrating a paper on the American species.

Regarding investigation carried on in the national herbarium, Mr. Coville reports as follows:

Dr. E. L. Greene, of the Catholic University of America, has spent much time here engaged on various lines of systematic work. Dr. N. L. Britton, director of the New York Botanical Garden, has been a frequent visitor, being engaged with Mr. Rose in preparing a monograph of the North American genera of Crassulaceæ, which will soon be published. Mr. Theo. Holm, of Brookland, District of Columbia, has frequently been here to examine our Carices. He has frequently borrowed material to take to his home, and we have had specimens sent on here for him to study. We have endeavored to give him every facility to carry on his work and to grant all requests consistent with the Museum rules and regulations. Prof. E. L. Morris, of the Washington High School, has been studying the genus *Plantago*, doing much of his work at the herbarium. We have borrowed several collections for him from other institutions.

The following persons from the Department of Agriculture, in addition to those officially connected with the Division, have frequently consulted the herbarium: Mr. L. H. Dewey, Mr. V. K. Chestnut, Mr. W. F. Wight, Mr. C. L. Sheer, Mr. C. R. Ball, Mr. P. L. Ricker, Mr. C. F. Wheeler, Mr. C. V. Piper, Mr. Scofield.

SCIENTIFIC RESEARCHES AND INVESTIGATIONS.

While the preparations for the St. Louis Exposition occupied a portion of the time of nearly every member of the scientific staff, on the other hand the separate management of the exhibition work by a chief designated for that purpose more than compensated for the diversion. The scientific work accomplished during the year, therefore, showed no important diminution as compared with that of previous years. A complete list of papers published will be found under the heading "Bibliography".

Work on the manual of the Birds of North and Middle America was continued by Mr. Ridgway without interruption during the year. Part 1 of this work was published in 1901 and part 2 in 1902. Part 3 was printed to page 472 and the manuscript for the remainder completed and sent to press. Of part 4, more than 700 pages of manuscript were made ready for the printer, and the work beyond that point is well in hand. Mr. Ridgway was assisted after January 1, 1904, by Mr. J. H. Riley, who prepared the necessary tables of measurements, etc.

Mr. Ridgway also published during the year two papers containing descriptions of 4 new genera and 29 new species and subspecies of American birds.

Lists of the birds collected by Doctor Abbott and Mr. C. B. Kloss on Anambas and Tambelans islands, China Sea, and at Tringanu, Malay Peninsula, were prepared by Doctor Richmond and sent to Mr. Kloss at his request. Doctor Richmond also completed the majority of identifications of the birds collected by Doctor Abbott on the islands off the west coast of Sumatra and published five notes on matters of zoological nomenclature.

Mr. J. H. Riley published three notes on birds of the Bahama Islands, including a description of a new nighthawk.

Dr. F. W. True submitted the manuscript of his memoir of the Whalebone Whales of the Western North Atlantic for publication, and at the close of the year the entire work, consisting of about 300 pages, with 50 plates, had passed through the press. During the year he published four papers on cetaceans and a number of articles for the Encyclopedia Americana.

The study of Doctor Abbott's collections of mammals from the Malay Archipelago was continued by Mr. G. S. Miller, jr., during the year. He published descriptions of 70 new species from these collections, including a new genus and 6 new species of monkeys, 2 new species of mouse-deer (*Tragulus*), and 6 new species of flying lemurs (*Galeopithecus*), etc. He published also descriptions of 4 additional species of Old World mammals, a note on the bat *Euderma maculatum*, and a paper on bats collected by Mr. William Palmer in Cuba. In addition, Mr. Miller continued work on a reclassification of the Cheiroptera. Dr. M. W. Lyon completed his study of the osteology of the hares and their allies, mentioned in last year's report, and published an elaborate revision of the genera and subgenera, based on osteological characters.

Doctor Stejneger's Herpetology of Porto Rico was published during the year in the Museum report for 1902. It is a comprehensive work of 175 pages, with numerous illustrations. Doctor Stejneger continued his investigation of the reptile fauna of eastern Asia, and also worked up the collections obtained by Dr. Hugh M. Smith in Japan and by Mr. J. H. Riley in the Bahama Islands. The latter contained a new species of iguana, which was named *Cyclura rileyi* by Doctor Stejneger. He also published a description of a new snake from Florida and a new lizard from Texas, together with a report on the Fifth Zoological Congress, to which he was delegate.

A report on the fishes collected in the Bahama Islands by Mr. B. A. Bean for the Baltimore Geographical Society was prepared by him for the society. It included a list of 165 species, with notes on their habits, abundance, and uses. Mr. Bean also identified the collection

of fishes of the Nile made by the Senff Expedition of 1899, and published notes on collections from North Carolina and the Barbados.

Dr. William H. Dall completed reviews of the nomenclature of the Pupacea and of the history and classification of the Tritons and Frog-shells, and also a summary of the recent and fossil land-shell fauna of the Bahamas. He also began a general review of the land and fresh-water shells of Alaska and adjoining regions in Asia and North America. His publications on recent mollusks for the year consisted of descriptions of 13 new species from California, a new genus of Trochidæ from Hawaii, three notes on nomenclature, a note on the family Septidæ, and one on the relations of *Gundlachia* and *Ancylus*. He also published conjointly with Mr. Paul Bartsch the chapter on the Pyramidellidæ in Mr. Ralph Arnold's Paleontology of San Pedro, California, a synopsis of the genera of the same family, a revision of *Ampullaria*, and a description of a new California species of *Peri-ploma*.

Mr. Bartsch continued work on the Pyramidellidæ, as noted in last year's report, and published descriptions of new species of *Scissurella* and *Sonorella*, a note on *Limax*, and also an account of the herons living in the District of Columbia.

The bibliography of the staff of the Division of Insects (including the honorary officers) for the year comprises 114 titles. It is obviously impossible to mention so large a number in detail in this place, but a full list will be found under "Bibliography". Dr. L. O. Howard published 16 papers, including one in the Yearbook of the Department of Agriculture for 1903 on silk culture. Doctor Ashmead's papers number 20, the most extensive being a classification of the Chalcid flies, based partly on the collection of the National Museum and published by the Carnegie Museum of Pittsburg. It consists of 326 pages and 9 plates. Dr. H. G. Dyar's entomological publications for the year number 31, among them being a paper of 160 pages on the Lepidoptera of the Kootenai District of British Columbia. Mr. D. W. Coquillett published 15 papers, including descriptions of new genera and species in Mrs. C. F. Baker's reports on the Diptera of California. Mr. Nathan Banks's publications on spiders were of equal number; among them one on Pliasmidæ of 23 pages, the spiders of Florida, containing a list of 279 species, of which 13 were new (28 pp.).

Mr. Caudell published 14 papers, among them one on the Walking-sticks (Phasmidæ) of the United States (23 pp.), containing descriptions of a new subfamily, three new genera, and four new species. Mr. R. P. Currie published an account of an insect-collecting trip in British Columbia (14 pp.) and two other papers.

Dr. J. E. Benedict's revision of the crustaceans of the genus *Lepidopa*, mentioned in last year's report, was published in the Proceedings of the Museum, and he has continued his studies of the

anomurans and published a paper on new albuneids. Miss M. J. Rathbun's monograph of the fresh-water crabs (Potamonidæ) was completed and is in course of publication in the *Archives* of the Paris Museum of Natural History. She also continued work on the Hawaiian crabs. Her report on the decapod crustaceans of the northwest coast of North America (190 pp.) was published in the Harriman Alaska Expedition series. A report on isopod crustaceans of this region by Dr. Harriet Richardson was included in the same volume. Doctor Richardson published two other papers on isopods during the year.

Dr. C. W. Stiles, custodian of the helminthological collection, completed his investigation of the hookworm disease in the Southern States, and undertook an investigation of the "spotted fever." He published two papers relating to parasites, and, in cooperation with Dr. Albert Hassall, the fourth, fifth, and sixth parts of an index catalogue of medical and veterinary zoology.

The titles of papers published by Dr. F. V. Coville, honorary curator of the national herbarium, are given in the Bibliography (Appendix III of this Report). Dr. J. N. Rose continued the study of the Crassulaceæ, and expects soon to publish a monograph of that family conjointly with Dr. N. L. Britton. One preliminary paper on the family by these authors appeared during the year, in which eleven new genera and a large number of new species were described. Doctor Rose also published a description of a new species of Begonia. He was invited to join Doctor Britton in a work on the cactuses of North America, the investigations for which will occupy some four or five years. Mr. W. R. Maxon gave some time to the study of the ferns of the Philippine Islands.

PERSONNEL.

Dr. Edward L. Greene was appointed honorary associate in botany June 1, 1904.

The Head Curator was appointed representative of the Smithsonian Institution and National Museum for the Lewis and Clark Exposition, Portland, Oregon, 1905.

Dr. Leonhard Stejneger acted as Head Curator of the Department from January to May, 1904. He was also appointed representative of the National Museum at the Sixth Zoological Congress, Berne, Switzerland. Mr. G. S. Miller, jr., was also designated as a delegate to this congress.

Mr. F. A. Lucas, curator of the division of comparative anatomy, severed his connection with the staff of the Museum on June 30, 1904.

Dr. J. E. Benedict, assistant curator, was designated to act temporarily as chief of exhibits, on May 17, 1904.

Mr. J. H. Riley, aid, was transferred on December 30, 1903, from the section of birds' eggs to the division of birds, to assist Mr. R. Ridgway in completing his Manual of the Birds of North and Middle America, and Mr. Edward Horgan was appointed temporarily in his place.

Mr. R. P. Currie, aid, division of insects, was transferred to the Department of Agriculture on June 30, 1904.

Mr. C. A. McKnew was appointed aid in the division of fishes on April 16, 1904.

Mr. F. A. Walpole, artist in the national herbarium, died May 11, 1904.

Mr. Henry Marshall, bird taxidermist, died May 26, 1904.

Mr. C. L. Pollard, assistant curator, division of plants, was given an extended furlough, beginning October 1, 1903, to enable him to engage in temporary botanical work elsewhere.

REPORT ON THE DEPARTMENT OF GEOLOGY FOR THE YEAR 1903-04.

By George P. Merrill,
Head Curator.

The year 1903–04 compares favorably with those immediately preceding it in both the number and value of accessions. Indeed, when that acquired for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition is taken into consideration, the value of exhibition material received exceeds that of either of the two previous years. As, however, much of this has not yet been installed in the Museum collections, its full value can not be made apparent.

ACCESSIONS.

The total number of accessions received by the Department is shown in tabular form below, those of 1902–03 being also given for purposes of comparison:

Divisions and sections.	1903-04.	1902-03.
Geology	377	371
Mineralogy	143	110
Invertebrate paleontology	106	86
Vertebrate paleontology	45	22
Paleobotany	19	15

Below is a list of the more important of the materials received:

DIVISION OF GEOLOGY.

1. A series of 102 specimens of platiniferous rocks from the Demidoff Mines, Russia; gift of M. Juarez Sponville.

2. A magnificent mass of amethystine quartz, weighing some 400 pounds, from the extraordinary geode discovered a few years since in Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, and described by Dr. G. F. Kunz in the Mineral Resources for 1901.

3. A series comprising 78 specimens of rocks, illustrating the occurrence and association of the diamond at the De Beers Consolidated Mines, Kimberley, South Africa. These came to the Museum as a gift from Mr. Gardner F. Williams, the manager of the mines, and the author of the work The Diamond Mines of South Africa.

4. A series of 22 specimens of copper and its associations from Calumet, Michigan.

5. A large slab of polished rose quartz, some 33 by 39 by 5 inches, from the Black Hills of South Dakota.

6. A beautiful nugget of native silver; gift of Mr. A. L. Pellegrin, Nogales, Arizona.

7. A sample of diamond-bearing gravel with small diamond attached from Minas Geraes, Brazil; gift of Prof. O. A. Derby.

In addition, mention should be made of a fine series of opalized wood from near Logan, Montana, and a unique series of silicified geyser tubes from southwestern Wyoming (both collected for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition by the Head Curator); some large slabs of the peculiar porphyritic rock known as leopardite from near Salisbury, North Carolina, and of orbicular diorite from near Advance, in the same State; also of the various quadrangle series, comprising some 385 specimens, received from the U. S. Geological Survey.

DIVISION OF MINERALOGY.

1. The largest accession of the year comprised some 600 specimens illustrating the occurrence and association of zeolites and other silicates in the trap rocks of New Jersey. The collection is remarkably complete and valuable for both study and exhibition purposes. It came to the Museum through the instrumentality of Dr. William S. Disbrow, of Newark, New Jersey, to whom we have been indebted for much interesting material in years past.

Of historical interest, the division has also received from this same gentleman one of the first known crystals of American spodumene, forming one of the lot exhibited by Dr. Edward Hitchcock in New England in the early part of the last century.

2. An example of the recently discovered and described pink spodumene known locally as kunzite and utilized as gem material; the gift of Mr. F. M. Sickler.

3. A specimen of anglesite with sulphur on galena from Monte Poni. The material is of interest in showing the processes of oxidation and reduction in the same specimen.

4. A series of artificial stones used in the gem trade, including fine examples of pastes, doublets, triplets, and stones artificially colored; the gift of Mr. Oscar T. Johnasson.

5. Cut turquoise from Idaho, Clay County, Alabama; the gift of Mr. Eugene A. Smith.

6. A set of paste models showing the various forms in which gems are cut.

7. Several important additions have been made to the meteorite collection, including examples of the Trenzano fall, weighing 163

grams; the Franceville, Missouri, iron, weighing 300 grams; the Mukerop, South Africa, iron, weighing 14,288 grams; and the Finnmarken pallasite, weighing 595 grams.

In addition is to be mentioned a large series of showy quartzes and calcites obtained by gift, collection, and purchase for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. This includes some magnificent smoky quartzes from Montana, the gift of Mr. A. P. Pohndorf and Mr. J. R. Wharton, beautiful agates, opals, and other materials which can not be described in detail until they are returned from the Exposition.

INVERTEBRATE PALEONTOLOGY.

The permanent accessions in this division amount to something like 68,000 specimens, though, naturally, this includes much duplicate material.

1. The largest single accession includes some 40,000 reserve specimens transferred from the U. S. Geological Survey. These are for the most part determined, labeled, and arranged in zoological and stratigraphical order, and comprise the material which Dr. William H. Dall and his assistants have spent years in gathering and working up to its present high scientific value.

2. The Survey has also turned over to this Museum another very valuable, though in large part unworked, collection. This comprises a series of some 1,932 Tertiary insects, brought together by Dr. Samuel H. Scudder, besides many hundred original drawings, a great part of which are unpublished. Mr. Charles Schuchert reports that this transfer makes the Museum collection of fossil insects the largest in America, if not in the world.

3. Second only to the accessions mentioned above is the final portion of the E. O. Ulrich collection. This embraces the mollusca and miscellaneous materials of this most valuable collection, and comprises no less than 15,000 reserve specimens and 500 lots of original types or illustrated specimens.

4. From the Imperial Academy of Sciences, St. Petersburg, Russia, through Dr. Frederich von Schmidt, was received as a gift an excellent suite of Lower Silurian Estland fossils. The material was selected by Mr. Schuchert while in Russia for the purpose of making correlations between the Russian and American faunas.

5. From the Zoological Museum of the University of Copenhagen, Denmark, through Prof. G. M. R. Levinson, there was received in the way of exchange a fine series comprising more than 100 specimens of identified European Mesozoic and Tertiary bryozoa.

6. From the Yale University Museum, through Dr. C. E. Beecher, was received as a gift a collection of 18 species, comprising 580 specimens, of Hamilton brachiopods, representing the various stages of

growth. This is a collection of more than ordinary value, because of the great care exercised by Doctor Beecher in the selection and mounting of the material.

7. From Mr. B. E. Walker, Toronto, Canada, as a gift, there was received a number of excellent cystids from the Silurian of Grimsby, Ontario.

8. For exhibition at St. Louis there were obtained, largely by purchase, an excellent series of Lower Devonian starfishes and crinoids, a large slab with many fine examples of *Pentacrinus fossilis*, a similar slab of *Trigonia clavata*, several large ammonites, and an excellent series of Solenhofen invertebrate fossils.

VERTEBRATE PALEONTOLOGY.

1. The most important accession of the year was a specimen of the pterodactyl, *Rhamphorhynchus phyllurus*, showing the impression of the wing and tail membranes. This, as well as fine specimens of ichthyosaur and teleosaur (*Stenosaurus*) and a number of fishes typical of the fauna of the lithographic limestone, was purchased for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition.

2. A cranium of *Bison alleni*, presented by Mr. D. McLean, of Rampart city, Alaska, is important from the fact that it is the first specimen of this species obtained in Alaska, and because the horn material itself was preserved.

PALEOBOTANY.

The only accessions of great importance in this department were:

1. One hundred and ninety specimens from Mazon Creek, Illinois; Athens, Ohio; and other localities, which form a part of the Carl Rominger collection purchased a year ago. This collection is especially valuable as containing a fair representation of silicified trunks, particularly of the genera *Dadoxylon* and *Psaronius*. These were accompanied by a series of well-prepared microscopic sections.

2. One hundred and thirty-two specimens from the higher beds of the anthracite series, collected and presented to the Museum by Mr. C. W. Unger, of Pottsville, Pennsylvania.

ROUTINE.

In the division of geology some 1,250 labels for the exhibition series have been printed and distributed; at least a thousand duplicates have been sorted out from the material that has been gradually accumulating for years past, labeled, wrapped, and sent to storage to be utilized for exchanges and future distribution; 8,632 catalogue, bibliographic, and title cards have been prepared; 1,041 slips written for the type catalogue; 1,530 catalogue entries made; copy for 612

labels prepared for the printer; 193 temporary labels prepared for the exhibition series; 2,140 slips for the reserve collections; 895 pages of manuscript of scientific material prepared; and 3,658 specimens have been permanently numbered in oil colors.

The entire lithological study series has been overhauled and a complete card catalogue made of the same.

The geological section across North America, referred to in my previous reports, has been completed and placed on exhibition against the south wall of the west-south range. This, it will be remembered, comprises a section on a scale of 2 miles to the inch, extending from the coast of North Carolina to that of California near San Francisco.

Upward of 300 thin sections of rocks have been prepared.

In the division of minerals the entire descriptive exhibition series has been overhauled and labeled. The work on a card catalogue of the mineralogical collection is progressing favorably, some 4,300 cards having been thus far prepared.

In the division of stratigraphic paleontology Mr. Schuchert reports that Mr. R. S. Bassler has spent a large portion of the fiscal year in the work of unpacking, labeling, and sorting specimens, and remounting the thin sections of bryozoa in the E. O. Ulrich collection. To this collection have now been added nearly all the other Museum bryozoa, the greater part of which are in an unworked condition.

During the year there have been put away in final Museum condition probably not less than a hundred thousand specimens. The exact number can not be given, since the Paleozoic collections have been growing at a remarkable rate. This growth is due largely to the purchase during the past three years of the Ulrich, Rominger, and Sherwood collections, besides much other material, not including such as comes to the Museum regularly from the U. S. Geological Survey and through the efforts of the departmental staff. The registering of these specimens, as well as the work of painting the numbers and making the cards, is now far behind, owing to the lack of sufficient assistance.

The work of preparing for distribution 500 school collections of invertebrate fossils, each comprising 30 to 60 specimens, is well in hand and will be completed during the first month of the coming year. The 500 collections will contain altogether not less than 60,000 specimens.

In the division of vertebrate paleontology a skull of a *Diplodocus* from the Marsh collections has been cleaned and mounted, and one of a *Trachodon* from Butler County, Montana, restored and remounted for exhibition purposes.

Two skulls of *Ceratopsia*, one the type of *Triceratops calicornis* and the other a fine specimen of a new genus of these great Dinosaurs, have been prepared for exhibition.

In the division of paleobotany the work of preparing the card catalogue of the Lacoe collection of fossil plants is progressing slowly.

The regular work of the Museum has been greatly interrupted during this period by preparation for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. The Curator of the Department was absent from Washington in connection with this work some ninety-one days of the year. During this time he made—

(1) A trip to the Pacific coast and back, going viâ Ishpeming, Michigan, and the Northern Pacific to Portland, Oregon, and returning by way of San Francisco; Ogden, and Salt Lake, Utah; Pocatello, Idaho; through Wyoming to Laramie, Denver, and the Black Hills of Dakota. (2) A trip into western Mexico in the vicinity of Bacubirito, State of Sinaloa, and (3) finally, a trip into the apatite, mica, and asbestos regions of Canada.

The purpose of the Mexican trip was to secure for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition a cast of the celebrated Bacubirito meteorite, the second largest known mass of meteoric iron in the world.

Mr. Wirt Tassin, of the division of mineralogy, made a trip into an interesting zeolite locality near Newark, New Jersey, and obtained much valuable material.

Mr. William C. Phalen made two trips into Virginia for the purpose of making collections and studying the unakite near Milams Gap, Virginia.

Mr. Schuchert was granted four months' leave of absence in Europe, where considerable time was devoted to collecting Ordovician, Silurian, Devonian, and Carboniferous fossils.

Messrs. W. H. Newhall, Charles Schuchert, Wirt Tassin, and the Head Curator were in St. Louis for periods varying from one to three weeks, engaged in the work of installing the exhibits of the Department. Dr. A. C. Peale was also on leave for a period of more than two months.

ASSISTANCE TO INDIVIDUALS AND INSTITUTIONS.

There have been sent out by the Department during the period covered by this report, in the way of gifts and exchanges, some 64 lots, comprising 7,138 specimens.

In addition, material for study has been loaned to the individuals and institutions mentioned below:

Mr. John M. Clarke, of the New York State Museum; Prof. W. B. Clark, of Johns Hopkins University; Mr. S. F. Emmons, of the U. S. Geological Survey; Dr. A. Handlirsch, of the K. K. Naturhistorische Hofmuseum, Vienna; Prof. C. H. Hitchcock, of Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire; Prof. Edwin G. Kirk, of Columbia University, New York City; Dr. George F. Kunz, New York City; the American Museum of Natural History; Mr. P. E. Raymond, New

Haven, Connecticut; and Mr. Frank Springer, of the Bureau of Standards, Washington City.

Portions of the collections of the Division of Geology have been studied by Dr. Thomas L. Watson, of Denison University, Granville, Ohio, in connection with the preparation of a report on the building stone of North Carolina.

Prof. H. F. Osborn has continued his work on the Titanotherium of the Marsh collection. Dr. J. B. Hatcher spent several weeks in the study of the Triceratops, and Mr. F. A. Lucas in the study of the Stegosaur remains.

In addition to the members of the U. S. Geological Survey, the following persons have studied the collections in Paleobotany:

Dr. Arthur Hollick, assistant curator of botany in the New York Botanical Gardens; the Rev. H. Herzer, of Marietta, Ohio; and Mr. E. W. Berry, of Passaic, New Jersey.

PRESENT CONDITION OF THE COLLECTIONS.

The condition of the collections as a whole is quite satisfactory, when everything is taken into consideration. In spite of numerous interruptions, due to the work of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, the general work of cataloguing and numbering has been carried on, and the records are being daily improved.

The exhibition series is kept constantly alive through the insertion of new material and the weeding out of that which is old and less desirable.

The section of vertebrate paleontology at present needs the largest share of attention. This is in part due to the fact that the work of preparation of vertebrate material is slow, laborious, and necessarily expensive. The Claosaurus mount, which was reported as nearly complete at the close of the last fiscal year, is now installed against the south wall of the southeast court.

The exhibition series has been increased by the addition of a fine skull of a new genus of Ceratopsia and skulls of a Diplodocus and Trachodon, the latter from Butler County, Montana; also a mounted skeleton of *Syornis casuarinus* from New Zealand.

It was hoped that we might be able to report fair progress in the way of mounting a Triceratops, but numerous events, including the resignation of a preparator, have conspired to prevent this.

The collection of bryozoa, which has been already referred to, is reported by Mr. Schuchert as occupying nearly 150 standard drawers and comprising what is probably the most important collection of its kind extant. This is indicated by the number of types and illustrated specimens, of which there are some 620 different lots or species.

The exhibition collections in all the divisions, with the exception of that of vertebrate paleontology, are as full as available space will permit.

The study collections are, as a rule, in a fairly satisfactory condition, although much remains to be done to bring the records up to date.

In the division of stratigraphic paleontology much yet must be done to complete the records relating to the Ulrich, Rominger, and Sherwood collections. It is estimated that at the present rate of progress at least two years will be required to complete this work.

RESEARCH.

The routine work of the Museum, taken in connection with that of preparing for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, has greatly interfered with research work on the part of the Museum force. The Head Curator published but little. He has, however, supervised the work of an economic survey in North Carolina, having particular reference to the building and ornamental stones of the States, and has acted in the capacity of expert special agent in charge of Report on Stone Quarries in connection with the census. He has prepared reports in both instances, but they have not yet been published.

Mr. William C. Phalen has studied and described the rocks of the Nugsuaks Peninsula, in Greenland, and an occurrence of unakite near Milams Gap, Virginia.

Mr. Wirt Tassin reports some eighteen analyses made looking toward the identification of little-known material; he has also studied and described a meteorite from Persimmon Creek in North Carolina.

Mr. R. S. Bassler has continued his studies on the Rochester shale bryozoa, a work which he hopes to complete during the coming year.

Mr. E. O. Ulrich, in conjunction with Mr. Bassler, has completed two papers on Paleozoic bryozoa.

Miss Elvira Wood, of the U. S. Geological Survey, has prepared a paper treating of all the Middle Devonian crinoids in the Museum collections.

CHANGES IN PERSONNEL.

The Department of Geology has suffered severely through resignations, due in nearly every instance to insufficient salaries.

Mr. Alban Stewart, preparator in the section of vertebrate paleontology, resigned on March 12, last. His place has been filled, temporarily, by Mr. C. W. Gilmore.

Messrs. R. S. Bassler and William C. Phalen resigned on May 9 and 15, respectively, to accept positions with the U. S. Geological Survey.

Mr. Charles Schuchert has accepted the position of professor of paleontology in Yale University, though his resignation has not yet taken effect.

Mr. F. A. Lucas, of the Department of Biology, who has been in charge of the collections of vertebrate fossils, has also severed his connection with the Museum.

APPENDIX I.

The Museum Staff.

[June 30, 1904.]

S. P. Langley, Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, Keeper Ex-officio.
Richard Rathbun, Assistant Secretary, in charge of the U. S. National Museum.
W. de C. Ravenel, Administrative Assistant.

SCIENTIFIC STAFF.

Department of Anthropology:

Otis T. Mason, Acting Head Curator.

(*a*) *Division of Ethnology:* Otis T. Mason, Curator; Walter Hough, Assistant Curator; J. W. Fewkes, Collaborator.

(*b*) *Division of Physical Anthropology:* A. Hrdlicka, Assistant Curator.

(*c*) *Division of Historic Archeology:* Paul Haupt, Honorary Curator; Cyrus Adler, Honorary Assistant Curator; I. M. Casnowicz, Aid.

(*d*) *Division of Prehistoric Archeology:* W. H. Holmes, Honorary Curator; J. D. McGuire, Collaborator.

(*e*) *Division of Technology:* George C. Maynard, Assistant Curator.

(*f*) *Division of Graphic Arts:* Paul Brockett, Custodian.

Section of Photography: T. W. Smillie, Custodian.

(*g*) *Division of Medicine:* J. M. Flint, U. S. Navy (Retired), Honorary Curator.

(*h*) *Division of Historic Religions:* Cyrus Adler, Honorary Curator.

(*i*) *Division of History:* A. H. Clark, Honorary Curator; Paul Beckwith, Assistant Curator.

Department of Biology:

Frederick W. True, Head Curator.

(*a*) *Division of Mammals:* Frederick W. True, Curator; G. S. Miller, Jr., Assistant Curator; Marcus W. Lyon, Jr., Aid; Walter L. Hahn, Aid.

(*b*) *Division of Birds:* Robert Ridgway, Curator; Charles W. Richmond, Assistant Curator; J. H. Riley, Aid.

Section of Birds' Eggs: William L. Ralph, Honorary Curator; E. J. Horgan, Aid.

(*c*) *Division of Reptiles and Batrachians:* Leonhard Stejneger, Curator; R. G. Paine, Aid.

(*d*) *Division of Fishes:* Tarleton H. Bean, Honorary Curator; Barton A. Bean, Assistant Curator; C. A. McKnew, Aid.

(*e*) *Division of Mollusks:* William H. Dall, Honorary Curator; Paul Bartsch, Aid; William B. Marshall, Aid.

(*f*) *Division of Insects:* L. O. Howard, Honorary Curator; W. H. Ashmead, Assistant Curator; R. P. Currie, Aid.

Section of Hymenoptera: W. H. Ashmead, in charge.

Section of Myriapoda: O. F. Cook, Custodian.

DEPARTMENT OF BIOLOGY—Continued.

(*f*) *Division of Insects*—Continued.

Section of Diptera: D. W. Coquillett, Custodian.

Section of Coleoptera: E. A. Schwarz, Custodian.

Section of Lepidoptera: H. G. Dyar, Custodian.

Section of Arachnida: Nathan Banks, Custodian.

(*g*) *Division of Marine Invertebrates:* Richard Rathbun, Honorary Curator; J. E. Benedict, Assistant Curator; Mary J. Rathbun, Assistant Curator; Harriet Richardson, Collaborator.

Section of Helminthological Collections: C. W. Stiles, Custodian.

(*h*) *Division of Comparative Anatomy:* Frederic A. Lucas, Curator.

(*i*) *Division of Plants* (*National Herbarium*): Frederick V. Coville, Honorary Curator; J. N. Rose, Assistant Curator.

Section of Forestry: B E. Fernow, Honorary Curator.

Section of Cryptogamic Collections: O. F. Cook, Honorary Assistant Curator; W. R. Maxon, Aid.

Section of Higher Algæ: W. T. Swingle, Custodian.

Section of Lower Algæ: G. T. Moore, Custodian.

Section of Lower Fungi: D. G. Fairchild, Custodian.

Associates in Zoology (Honorary): Theodore N. Gill, C. Hart Merriam, R. E. C. Stearns.

Associate in Botany (Honorary): Edward L. Greene.

DEPARTMENT OF GEOLOGY:

George P. Merrill, Head Curator.

(*a*) *Division of Physical and Chemical Geology* (*Systematic and Applied*): George P. Merrill, Curator; W. H. Newhall, Aid.

(*b*) *Division of Mineralogy:* F. W. Clarke, Honorary Curator; Wirt Tassin, Assistant Curator; Rev. L. T. Chamberlain, Honorary Custodian of Gems and Precious Stones.

(*c*) *Division of Stratigraphic Paleontology:* Charles D. Walcott, Honorary Curator; Charles Schuchert, Assistant Curator.

Section of Vertebrate Fossils: F. A. Lucas, Acting Curator.

Section of Invertebrate Fossils: Paleozoic, Charles Schuchert, Custodian; Carboniferous, George H. Girty, Custodian; Mesozoic, T. W. Stanton, Custodian; Cenozoic, W. H. Dall, Associate Curator; Madreporarian Corals, T. Wayland Vaughan, Custodian.

Section of Paleobotany: Lester F. Ward, Associate Curator; A. C. Peale, Aid; F. H. Knowlton, Custodian of Mesozoic Plants; David White, Custodian of Paleozoic Plants.

Associate in Paleontology (Honorary): Charles A. White.

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF.

Chief of Correspondence and Documents, R. I. Geare.
Librarian, Cyrus Adler.
Assistant Librarian, N. P. Scudder.
Disbursing Clerk, W. W. Karr.
Superintendent of Construction and Labor, J. S. Goldsmith.
Editor, Marcus Benjamin.
Photographer, T. W. Smillie.
Registrar, S. C. Brown.
Property Clerk, W. A. Knowles.

APPENDIX II.

List of Accessions, 1903–04.

Abbott, Dr. W. L., Singapore, Straits Settlements: A very extensive, interesting, and valuable collection of ethnological specimens, including many unique objects from various islands off the western coast of Sumatra, and a large variety of natural history material, including many new and rare species from the same localities (41342); also a large collection of natural history specimens, containing mammals, birds' skins, birds' nests and eggs, birds' skeletons, reptiles, insects, and skeletons of different animals, besides many hundreds of ethnological objects in daily use among the inhabitants of the Rhio-Linga Archipelago (42168).

Abraham, Louis, Washington, D. C.: Six watch movements. 42468.

Abreu, Rosalia, Polotina, Cerro, Habana, Cuba: Leaf and fruit of a plant from Cuba. 41675.

Acker, Dr. G. N., Washington, D. C.: Brains of white and colored children (41792; 42101; 42466; 42549; 42864).

Adams, C. C. (See under Michigan, University of.)

Adams, Mrs. Frank, Mount Dora, Fla.: Two specimens of *Callitris robusta*. 42607.

Adams, Henry, Mason City, W. Va.: Three archeological specimens. 41242.

Adams, Dr. S. S., Washington, D. C.: Brain of a negro child (42034); brain of a white child (42340).

Adams, Wallace, U. S. National Museum: Paroquet, *Conurus hæmorrhous*. 42306.

Adelaide, Australia, Royal Geographical Society of Australasia. Received through Mr. Thomas S. Reed: Fifty-nine impressions of leaves and ferns; also a description of the process. 42192.

Agriculture, Bureau of, Manila, P. I. (See under Philippine Islands, Manila, Bureau of Agriculture.)

Agriculture, Department of, Hon. James Wilson, Secretary: Received through the Biological Survey, 90 birds' eggs and 5 nests, collected by Messrs. E. W. Nelson, E. A. Goldman, F. Stephens, W. H. Osgood, L. A. Fuertes, H. C. Oberholser, and J. F. Gant, in various parts of North America during the year 1903 (41350); 5 specimens of *Ashmunella chiricahuana* Dall from Capitan Mountains, New Mexico (41566); received through the Biological Survey, 8 fresh-water crabs from Guerrero, Mexico, collected by Messrs. Goldman and Nelson (41925); received through Dr. John R. Mohler, Bureau of Animal Industry, two dogs' skulls (42033); skull of a black and tan terrier (42052); through Dr. L. O. Howard, 14 insects and other specimens (42150); 1,554 specimens of miscellaneous insects collected by Messrs. D. W. Hunter, W. E. Hinds, J. H. Harris, and A. W. Morrill in Texas (42151); specimen of flax fiber from New Zealand (42483); 4,500 specimens of insects, principally Coleoptera from Cayamas, Cuba, collected by Dr. E. A. Schwarz (42622); 99 specimens of Coleoptera from Brazil (42623); meteorological instruments and apparatus from the Weather Bureau (42625);

AGRICULTURE, DEPARTMENT OF—Cont'd.

25 specimens of land shells collected by Mr. J. H. Gant in Oklahoma (42755); 375 insects collected by Dr. L. O. Howard in Mexico, consisting of Hymenoptera, Coleoptera, Diptera, Lepidoptera, Hemiptera, Orthoptera, Odonata, and Chrysopa (42759).

Material deposited in the National Herbarium: Fourteen plants from various parts of the United States (41261); 15 plants from the vicinity of Portland, Oreg., collected by Mr. E. P. Sheldon (41265); 74 plants collected in Lipscomb, Tex., by Mr. Arthur Howell (41280); 26 plants collected by Mr. Howell in Texas (41333); through the Biological Survey, 2 plants from Arizona collected by Mr. Vernon Bailey (41395); through the Division of Plant Industry, 2 specimens of lichens from Europe (41411); 2 specimens of *Hoffmanseggia* from Oklahoma collected by Mr. R. G. Dunlap (41492); plant from Missouri (41510); plant from Louisiana collected by Mr. W. R. Dodson (41511); received through the Division of Agrostology, 342 plants from Algeria, obtained by purchase from Mr. L. Chevallier, Precigné, Sarthe, France (41597); plants collected in New Mexico and Oklahoma by Mr. F. G. Plummer (41700); 165 plants from New Mexico collected by Mr. Vernon Bailey (41888); type specimen of *Abies* (42091); 2 specimens of *Ribes* collected by Mr. F. V. Coville at Kew Gardens, England (42122); 17 specimens of *Ribes* from Germany and France (42161); 6 plants from Arizona collected by Dr. C. Hart Merriam (42185); 7 plants from California collected by Dr. C. Hart Merriam (42246); specimen of *Abies* collected by Mr. Vernon Bailey in New Mexico (42315); 2 plants from Porto Rico (42391); 10 plants from Texas collected by Mr. Vernon Bailey (42405); 4 plants from California obtained by Dr. C. Hart Merriam (42406); plant from Paraguay, collected by Mr. J. N. Ruffin (42512); 2 plants from California collected by Dr. B. E. Fernow (42525); 8 plants from California collected by Miss Alice Eastwood (42630); 8 plants from Alabama

AGRICULTURE, DEPARTMENT OF—Cont'd.

collected by Mr. S. M. Tracy (42631); herbarium specimens of woody plants (42670); 2 plants from Ohio collected by Mr. J. L. Reid (42820); 9 plants from various localities (42841); 2 specimens of *Ribes* from Minnesota and Georgia (42848); through the Biological Survey, 19 plants from Oklahoma collected by Mr. J. H. Gant (42852); 15 plants from Oregon collected by Mr. C. V. Piper (42894); 10 plants from Colorado collected by Miss E. W. Cathcart (42898); 6 specimens of cactus from near Emma, Tex., collected by Mr. F. V. Coville (42899).

(See also under: Baker, C. F.; Blankinship, J. M.; Dugès, Dr. A.; Fisher, H. L.; Fredholm, A.; Gant, J. H.; Giloeira, J. J.; Hall, H. M.; Hayes, W. R.; Hummel, Gustave; Pearsall, R. F.; Perkins, R. C. L.; Piper, C. V.; Prey, Nina; Simms, Mrs. Thomas; Singer, G. P.; Sias, A. W.; Tullock, A. E.; Wilcox, G. B.; Wilcox, Dr. T. E.).

ALBANY MUSEUM. (See under Grahamstown, South Africa.)

ALBERS, A., Cincinnati, Ohio: Specimens of fossil ostracods. 42417.

ALLEN, Dr. J. A. (See under American Museum of Natural History, New York City.)

ALLEN, O. D., Ashford, Wash.: Six plants from Washington (41359, 41832).

ALLISON, ANDREW, Slidell, La., and Iuka, Miss.: Reptiles, a skin and skull of a bat (42891, 42706).

ALTAMIRANO, Dr. FERNANDO. (See under Mexico, City of, Instituto Medico Nacional.)

ALTOFAR, ANDREW, Washington, D. C.: Larva of Elm sawfly, *Cimbex americana* Leach. 42849.

ALWOOD, Prof. W. B., Blacksburg, Va.: Miscellaneous specimens of insects. 41747.

AMERICAN ENTOMOLOGICAL COMPANY, Brooklyn, N. Y.: Received through George Franck, manager. Nineteen specimens of Coleoptera. 42132.

American Gem and Pearl Company, New York City: Twenty-two gems (purchase) L. P. X. (42601); received through Mr. Lucien M. Zell, manager, gummite from Mitchell County, N. C.; also specimens of topaz and amethyst (gift) (42602).

American Museum of Natural History, New York City: Received through William Beutenmüller, 7 specimens, including 2 types of Lepidoptera (exchange) (41756); received through Prof. H. F. Osborn, 2 casts of feet of a fossil horse representing the species *Neohipparian whitneyi* (exchange) (42428); received through Dr. J. A. Allen, mammal skins and skulls and a skeleton (exchange) (42530); 16 plants collected by Miss Constance Dubois in California (gift) (42657); window transparencies illustrating the "Spine" of Mount Pelé (gift) (42781).

American Rutile Company, Washington, D. C.: Received through William M. Slater, president. Specimen of titanium carbide. 42401.

Ames, Oakes, North Easton, Mass.: Type specimen of *Habenaria sanbornii* from Cuba (gift) (41734); 24 species of ferns and fernallies principally from Florida (gift) (42388); 103 plants from various sections of the United States (exchange) (42488).

Anderson, E. M., Provincial Museum, Victoria, B. C.: One hundred and seventy-seven specimens of Lepidoptera (41611; 41865; 42424).

Anderson, J. R., Department of Agriculture: Two plants from British Columbia. 41392.

Anderson, R. W., Wando, S. C.: Six plants and three snakes from South Carolina (42482; 42708).

Anderton, Mrs. I. W., Mackay, Idaho: Three teeth of a horse and two teeth of a fossil bison. 42438.

Andrews, Byron, Washington, D. C.: Thirty-five skulls of the Arctic fox (purchase) (42179); skull of an Arctic fox (gift) (42250).

Anthony, R. A., New York City: Eleven photographs of Niagara Falls and vicinity. 42236.

Appleton, Nathan, New York City: Oil painting by Etex, representing a scene from the "Gentleman of France." 42397.

Archibald, W. S., Norfolk, Va.: Three specimens of Purple finch, *Carpodacus purpureus*. 42176.

Arnheim, J. S., San Francisco, Cal.: Eight specimens of land and marine shells, representing 7 species from various localities. 41554.

Arnold Arboretum, Jamaica Plain, Mass.: Forty-one specimens of *Cratægus*. Exchange. 42415.

Arnold, Dr. Ralph. (See under Dr. J. J. Rivers.)

Arrondelle Sons, E., Paris, France: Plaster casts of the column of Hamourabi and of the circular monument of Telle; also of the head of Mercure (Discobole) Lancelotti. Purchase. L. P. X. 42435.

Ashmead, Dr. W. H. (See under Prof. S. Matsumura.)

Attwater, H. P., Houston, Tex.: Skin and skull of a jaguar. Purchase. 42609.

Atwood, S. H., & Co., Plattsmouth, Nebr.: Limestone with flint inclosures from a quarry at Wymore, Nebr. 42099.

Australian Opal Company, New York City: Specimen of Australian opal (41406); 3 opals in silicified wood from Australia (42600). Purchase. L. P. X.

Babcock, Charles, Ithaca, N. Y.: Specimen of weathered French Caen stone from Ithaca. Exchange. 42564.

Babcock, E. B., Berkeley, Cal.: Two plants from California. 41325.

Babcock, Mrs. P. H., Mount Dora, Fla.: Three specimens of *Bignonia*. 42283.

Bache, Réné, Washington, D. C.: Seven photographs illustrating Indian technical industries. 41704.

Bachtel, W. L., Joplin, Mo.: Three specimens of calcite. Purchase. 42698.

BACORN, Mr., Cable, Mont.: Ores and minerals from Cable mine, Cable, Mont. 41624.

BAGWELL, I. C., Stephenville, Tex.: Specimens of Longicorn beetle, *Neoclytus capræ* Say. 42266.

BAHAMA EXPEDITION, Baltimore, Md.: Collection of mammals, birds, reptiles, fishes, mollusks, marine invertebrates, and corals made by Messrs. J. H. Riley and B. A. Bean in the Bahama Islands during June and July of 1903. 41471.

BAILEY, VERNON, Department of Agriculture: Specimen of *Rhodiola* from New Mexico. 42005. (See also under Department of Agriculture and W. L. Bray.)

BAIN, H. F., U. S. Geological Survey: Three specimens of fluospar from Roseclare, Ill. 42200.

BAIRD, Capt. G. W., U. S. Navy. (See under War Department.)

BAKER, Prof. C. F., Stanford University, Cal.: Pomona College, Claremont, Cal.: Three plants from California (41284); 78 plants from Nevada (41288);[a] 48 plants from California (41296); 490 plants from California (41319);[a] crabs, including the species *Hemigrapsus nudus* (Dana); *Petrolisthes rupicolus* Stimpson; *Epialtus productus* Randall; *Pagurus granosimanus* Stimpson; *Hemigrapsus oregonensis* (Dana); *Arenæus mexicanus* (Gerstæcker) (41442); 148 specimens of Diptera from Mexico, Central America, and other localities (41498); 2 plants from California (41910); 43 specimens of Diptera (41930); fishes from San Pedro and Stanford University, California (42260); 13 specimens of Diptera (42275); 471 plants from Nicaragua (42284);[a] 34 specimens of Lepidoptera (42355); 8 butterflies (42419); 2 species of Helices from Catalina Island (42478); crustaceans from southern California (42492); 16 specimens of Lepidoptera, also larvæ (42521); 3 specimens of Lepidoptera (42538); received through Department of Agriculture, 38 specimens of Diptera from California (42651);

BAKER, Prof. C. F.—Continued. 2 specimens of *Emerita analoga* (Stm.) (42677); 6 plants from Central America (42803); 395 specimens of Diptera from California (42829).

BAKER, Dr. F.: Six specimens of marine shells from California (42056); specimen of *Ooula lactea* Sby., from the Philippine Islands (42683).

BAKER, T. M., Washington, D. C.: Shoemaker's foot measure. (Loan.) 8765.

BALDRIDGE, Mrs. MARIA, Los Angeles, Cal.: Two specimens of *Ocinebra barbarensis* Gabb., from San Pedro, Cal. 42839.

BALDWIN, W. T., East Bradford, Va.: Specimen of *Lepidodendron scobiniforme* Meek. 41784.

BALL, Mrs. PAULA, Los Angeles, Cal.: Specimen of *Tylodina fungina* Gabb. (alcoholic specimen); also 4 shells of Pleurotomidæ from Laguna beach, Los Angeles County. 41830.

BANKS, NATHAN, Department of Agriculture: Six specimens of Hemiptera, including *Fulvius heidemanni* Reut., and *Ploaria errabunda* Say (gift) (41457); 10 specimens of *Brachynemurus versutus* Walker, from Mexico (gift) (41656); 20 specimens of Myrmelionidæ (purchase) (41746).

BARBER, H. S., U. S. National Museum: Three specimens of *Polygyra columbiana* from Eureka, Cal. (41304); frog (*Rana sylvatica*) from near Plummers Island, Maryland (41485); bat from California (41763); bat (*Lasiurus borealis*) (41862); plant from Texas (42873); rattlesnake (*Crotalus tigris*) from Arizona (41960); 5 specimens of *Lasiurus* from Brownsville, Tex. (42892). See also under Washington Biologists Field Club.)

BARBER, M. D. Knoxville, Tenn.: Ten specimens of land and fresh-water shells from Tennessee (41443); 11 specimens of fresh-water mollusks (41796); 11 species of fresh-water shells (42222).

BARNEY, Lieut. J. P. (See under Brig. Gen. W. H. Carter, U. S. Army.)

[a] Purchase.

BARROTT, A. F., Owego, N. Y.: Three arrow points found in Tioga County. 41543.

BARTLETT, H. H., Indianapolis, Ind.: Snake (*Coluber obsoletus*), from Marion County, Ind. 42529.

BARTON, JOHN, U. S. Marine Corps, Washington, D. C.: Bill found in circulation in the Philippine Islands. (Loan.) 8874.

BARTSCH, PAUL, U. S. National Museum: Set of negatives showing Gould's types of Western American Pyramidellidæ and *Pecten herricens:* also figures of some the duplicates of Pyramidellids of the Reigen collection (42204); about 200 specimens of land and marine shells from Hampton, Cape Charles City, and Brighton, Va. (42308); 2 specimens of fungus representing the species *Cryptoporus volvatus* from the District of Columbia (42617); 3 salamanders from District of Columbia (42696); 2 specimens of Cranefly, *Linnobia* species, from Great Falls, Md. (42724). (See also under Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Fisheries and Gerrit S. Miller, jr.)

BASHORE, HIRAM, Mifflintown, Pa.: Mole (*Scalops aquaticus*). 41829.

BATES, Dr. E. N., Boston, Mass.: Twenty-six gun flints. 41229.

BATES, M. A., Clanton, Ala.: Product of natural weathering. (Loan.) 8888.

BATTLES, Mrs. J., Washington, D. C.: Specimen of Long-sting, *Thalessa lunator* Linnæus. 41453.

BAUSCH, PAUL, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of *Xylotrya fimbriata* Jeffr. from Texas. 42629.

BEALL, W. J., Lloyd, Tex.: Neuropteroid insect representing the species *Acanthaclisis americana* Drury. 41449.

BEAN, B. A., and C. A. MCKNEW, U. S. National Museum: Fishes and crustaceans collected at Beaufort, N. C. 42896.

BEAN, B. A. (See under Bahama Expedition.)

BECKWITH, Dr. E. G., Fostoria, Ohio: Larva of a beetle representing the species *Tenebrio molitor* Linnæus. 42020.

BECKWITH, P. E., U. S. National Museum: Silver coin, a lira 1863 of Victor Emanuel the Second, King of Italy (gift) (41444); full-dress uniform of a lieutenant-colonel in the Continental Army (exchange) (41462); silver threepence, the first issue of King Edward VII of Great Britain (gift) (41873); flintlock pistol made by Miles, of London, with a bayonet (gift) (42206); trumpet kazoo (gift) (42256); copy of the Missouri Republican, January 1, 1864, containing the chronology of the year 1863; also invitation and card to the unveiling of the Sherman statue (gift) (42597).

BEECHER, Dr. C. E. (See under Yale University Museum.)

BELL, Miss A. A., Chicago, Ill.: Specimen of an insect known as "Walking-stick," from Eagle Lake, Michigan. 41577.

BELL, A. BERNIE, Cairns, Queensland, Australia: Three hundred and thirty-two specimens of Lepidoptera. Purchase. 41584.

BELL COMPANY, GEORGE, Denver, Colo.: Seven specimens of minerals. Purchase. L. P. X. 41635.

BENEDICT, Dr. J. E., U. S. National Museum: Five plants from Maryland collected by Messrs. Benedict and Oldys. 41260.

BENEDICT, J. E., jr., Woodside, Md.: Specimen of *Adiantum pedatum.* 41416.

BENEZET, G. P., Peoria, Ill.: Beetle (*Silpha americana*). 41352.

BENHAM INDIAN TRADING COMPANY, New York City: Four baskets and two sashes. Purchase. L. P. X. 42507.

BERGER, A., La Mortola, Ventimiglia, Italy: Thirty-one plants from Italy. Exchange. 42687.

BERLIN, GERMANY, Königliches Botanisches Museum: Seven hundred and sixteen plants collected by Mr. H. A. Braun. Exchange. 42287.

BERLIN, GERMANY, Königliches Museum für Naturkunde. Received through Dr. Paul Matschie. Specimen of *Tragulus* from Singapore. Exchange. 41519.

BERLIN, GERMANY, Königliches Museum für Völkerkunde: Received through Dr. Eduard Seler. Græco-Roman plaster casts (exchange) (42733); 7 Græco-Roman plaster casts (purchase.) L. P. X. 42734.

BERNDT, E. L. (See under Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Fisheries.)

BERNICE PAUAHI BISHOP MUSEUM, Honolulu, Hawaiian Islands: Received through Mr. W. T. Brigham. Double calabash and 16 capa-markers. Exchange. 41979.

BERRY, S. S., Redlands, Cal.: Ten species of marine shells from near Avalon, Catalina Island (41560); 2 shells from California (42660).

BESSAC, F. T., Natchez, Miss.: Beetle (*Lucanus elephas* Fabricius). 41384.

BEUTENMÜLLER, WILLIAM, American Museum of Natural History, New York City: Cotypes of *Cychrus æneicollis* and *Platynus gracileutus* Beutenmüller. 41640. (See also under American Museum of Natural History.)

BEZZI, Prof. M., Sondrio, Italy: Two hundred and fifty-three specimens, 97 species, of European Diptera. 42427.

BIEDERMANN, C. R., Florence, Ariz.: Insects (41237); 15 beetles (42044).

BIGELOW, E. F., Stamford, Conn.: Specimens of Psyllid galls on Celtis (41253); specimen of Saddleback caterpillar (41612.)

BIOLOGICAL LABORATORY, U. S. National Museum: Plaster cast of a cobra. 42552.

BITTENBAU & Co., Neucestown, Tex.: Twelve specimens of *Nysius angustatus* Uhler. 42692.

BLAKE, W. W., Mexico, Mexico: Ancient Mexican greenstone carving representing a sacrificial yoke. Purchase. L. P. X. 41399.

BLANEY, DWIGHT, Boston, Mass.: Collection of shells dredged near Mount Desert Island, Maine, by the donor, including about 290 specimens representing 40 species. 42175.

BLANKINSHIP, J. M., Bozeman, Mont. Received through the Department of Agriculture. Fifty-eight plants from Montana. 42245.

BLATCHLEY, Prof. W. S., State Geologist, Indianapolis, Ind.: Eighty-four specimens of Orthoptera. Exchange. 42650.

BOHM, JULIUS, Vienna, Austria: Specimen of meteoric stony iron from Finnmarken, weighing 595 grams. Exchange. 41771.

BOLLINGER, W. A., Washington, D. C.: Seven-dollar bill of North Carolina, dated April 2, 1776. 41867.

BOLTON, A. L., Berkeley, Cal.: Birds' skeletons and the skull of a coyote. 41274.

BOND, FRANK, Washington, D. C.: Piece of a tree engraved with ancient letters, figures, etc. 43857.

BOUBÉE, E., Paris, France: Egg of *Æpyornis maximus*. Purchase. L. P. X. 41257.

BOULANGER, E., Paris, France: Two specimens of mushroom spawn from France. 41820.

BOYCE, THOMAS E., Middlebury, Vt.: Chips cut by a beaver. 42446.

BOYD, G. S., Honduras, Central America: Specimens of pottery from Central America. (Loan.) 9150.

BRADFORD, Mrs. SIDNEY, Avery Island, La.: Plants, roots, and nuts, representing material from which the Chetimacha Indians make their red, yellow, and black dyes (42815); 2 plants from Louisiana (42821).

BRAKELEY, J. TURNER, Hornerstown, N. J.: Larvæ of three species of mosquitoes (42624); larvæ of *Culex melanurus* Coquillett (42640; 42652); four pupal skins and four adults of a dipteron representing the species *Corethra cinctipes* Coquillett (42681); larvæ, pupæ, and adult mosquitoes principally representing the species *Culex aurifer* Coquillet (42805).

BRANCH, H. G. SELWYN, Antigua, British West Indies: Fifty-six bats and 323 birds' skins from Barbuda and Antigua. Purchase. 42688.

BRAND, H. J., San Francisco, Cal.: Plaster bust of President William McKinley. (Loan.) 8824.

BRANDEGEE, T. S., San Diego, Cal.: Two plants from California. 42086. (See also under C. A. Purpus.)

BRANSON, E. B., (See under Prof. S. W. Williston.

BRAUN, H. A. (See under Berlin, Germany, Königliches Botanisches Museum.)

BRAUNTON, ERNEST, Glendale, Cal.: Sixty-nine plants from California (41335; 42593; 42798).

BRAVERMAN, M., Visalia, Cal.: Three small Japanese baskets, and skeleton of a snake. 42582.

BRAY, W. L., University of Texas, Austin, Tex.: Received through Mr. Vernon Bailey. Three specimens of wood from Texas. 42606.

BREINIG, G. M., New Milford, Conn.: Specimen of rock quartz from a quarry near Branchville. 42074.

BREZINA, Dr. ARISTIDES, Vienna, Austria: A fragment of the "Trenzano" meteorite weighing 164 grams. Exchange. 41396.

BRICENO, SALOMON, Merida, Venezuela: Large collection of shells, birds' skins, mammals, birds' nests and eggs, insects, principally Lepidoptera and Coleoptera, from Venezuela. Purchase. 42234.

BRIGHAM, WILLIAM T. (See under Bernice Pauahi Bishop Museum).

BRIMLEY, C. S., Raleigh, N. C.: Natural-history specimens (gift) (41272); eggs of reptiles (purchase) L. P. X. (41275); 12 specimens of dragon flies, representing the species *Telagrion dæckii* (purchase) (41331); 18 specimens, three species, of dragon flies from North Carolina (gift) (41599).

BRITISH MUSEUM, (Natural History). (See under London, England.)

BRITTON, Dr. N. L., New York City: Plant from New Jersey. 42838. (See also under New York Botanical Garden.)

BROOKS, MIRIAM G., Salt Lake City, Utah: Partly consolidated dolomitic sand. 41662.

BROOKS, THEODORE, Guantanamo, Cuba: Rapid-firing gun shield secured from the Spanish gunboat *Sandoval*, which was sunk in Guantanamo Bay, July 28, 1898. 42314.

BROWN, CHARLES E., Milwaukee, Wis.: Four dragon flies. 42030.

BROWN, E. J., Lemon City, Fla.: Reptiles, batrachians, and insects from Florida (41481); snake (*Coluber guttatus*) from Florida (42735).

BROWN, FREDERIC, Perry, Me.: Received through Dr. David White. Specimen of *Archæopterix jacksoni* Dn. 41728.

BROWN, H. J., Newcastle, New South Wales, Australia: Received through Hon. F. W. Goding, United States consul. Algæ, squids, and egg cases of a shark. 42782.

BROWN, H. J., Washington, D. C.: Plant from Calapach Island. 42440.

BROWN, Mrs. J. CROSBY, Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City: Piano of obsolete make, with two photographs (42336); stringed instrument and a transverse flute (42736). Exchange.

BROWN, NATHAN C., Lakewood, N. J.: Two hundred and sixty-seven birds' skins from South Carolina. 42516.

BROWN, Mrs. N. M., Ashtabula, Ohio: Three hundred and thirty-five plants from Mexico, collected by Mr. E. W. Nelson. Purchase. 41245.

BROWN, Dr. P. D., contract surgeon, U. S. Army, Camp Mataling Falls, Philippine Islands: Moths and butterflies from the Philippine Islands. 41996.

BROWN, Rev. ROBERT, Philippine Weather Bureau, Manila, P. I.: Specimens of parasitic Hymenoptera. 42793.

BROWNE, CECIL SEYMOUR, Anacapri, Italy: Sixty-three moths (41344); Lepidoptera (41901; 42066). Exchange.

Browning, J. M., Mill Creek, Ind. T.: Specimen of horned *Corydalus*. 42884.

Brucciani, D., & Co., London, England: Ten casts of Assyrian, Egyptian, and Greek sculptures. Purchase. 42673. L. P. X.

Brues, Prof. C. T., Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, Mass., and Paris, Tex.: Two hymenopterous parasites (41347); 62 specimens of North American Phoridæ, including the types of 26 species described by Aldrich and Brues (42322); specimen of *Telenomus heliothidis* Ashm. (42823).

Bryan, H. W., Plano, Tex.: Clam shells, or lamellibranchs, *Radiolitis austinensis* Roemer. 41329.

Bryan, W. Alanson, Bishop Memorial Museum, Honolulu, Hawaiian Islands: Eight specimens of shells from Marcus Island, Pacific Ocean. 41604.

Bryan, St. George T. C., Oroville, Cal.: Specimen of soapstone from near Oroville, used by the Indians in making pottery and other objects. 41821.

Bryant, Owen, Cambridge, Mass.: Specimen of green crab from Ipswich, Mass. (42645); 80 specimens of mollusks from Bermuda (42705); crustaceans from Massachusetts and Bermuda (42751); crustaceans and eggs of mollusk (42807); specimen of *Crangon septemspinosa* Say (42869).

Bryant, Theo., Wellington, B. C.: One hundred and twenty-four specimens of Lepidoptera (41528); received through Dr. H. G. Dyar, 75 moths (42288).

Buciani, D. & Co., London, England: Cast from Temple of Sun God. Purchase. 42339.

Buhrig, Dr. C. H., Director, Cement Fabrik, Port Kunda, Estland, Russia. Two specimens of *Estonioceras*, specimen of *Vaginaten*, specimen of *Receptaculites*, a trilobite, and 6 gastropods. 42133.

Bulkley, L. C., Avalon, Alden Bridge, Bossier Parish, La.: Four specimens of fossil coral representing the species *Balanophyllia angustinensis* Vaughan. 41447.

Bunker, E. H., Biddeford Pool, Me.: Specimen of *Spheroides maculatus*. 41290.

Bunker, Mr., Fanturce, Porto Rico: Received through Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology: Two models of Porto Rican homes. 42913.

Bunnell, J. H. & Co., New York City, received through Clarence A. Stimpson: Morse telegraph apparatus, consisting of a sounder and a key. 41950.

Burke, H. E., Division of Entomology, Department of Agriculture: Six dragonflies. 42149.

Burks, W. S., Pittsburg, Tex.: Scarabæid beetle, *Dynastes tityus* Linnæus. 42046.

Burns, Dr. Frank, Smithsonian Institution: Specimen of Cambrian sandstone with *Scolithus linearis* Hall, from the drift near Washington, D. C. 41861.

Burnstine, Abraham, Washington, D. C.: Fifteen watch movements. 41705.

Burrall, H. D., Washington, D. C.: Twelve plants from Texas. Exchange. 42557.

Burrows, C. H., National Zoological Park, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of American Bittern, *Botaurus lentiginosus*. 42818.

Busck, August. (See under Washington Biologists' Field Club.)

Bush, A. H., Vancouver, B. C.: Twenty-one specimens of Lepidoptera. 41525.

Bush, B. F., Courtney, Mo.: Two hundred and eighty plants from Texas, Arkansas, and other localities. Purchase. 41263.

Butterfield, Dr. E. E., Washington, D. C.: Brain of a colored man. 42009.

Button, F. L., Oakland, Cal.: Specimen of *Pecten diegensis* Dall and *Capulus californicus* Dall, from San Pedro Bay, Cal. 41951.

Buysson, Count Robert du. (See under Paris, France, Musée d'Histoire Naturelle.)

California Academy of Sciences, San Francisco, Cal.: Fifty-four plants from California. Exchange. 42172.

California, University of, Berkeley, Cal.: One hundred and fifty-five plants from California. Exchange. 42747.

Cambridge, England, Sedgwick Museum: Received through Prof. T. McHenry Hughes. A part of the type specimen of *Bryozoa nebulipora* (*monticulipora*) *papillata* McCoy. 42881.

Campbell, James, Hastings, Pa.: Received through Dr. David White. Twenty-six specimens of Paleozoic fossils from the head of Cecil Creek, Cambria County, Pa. 42450.

Caproni, P. P., & Bro., Boston, Mass.: Eight plaster casts. Purchase. 42437. L. P. X.

Carnegie Institution, Washington, D. C.: Archæological collection made by Gerard Fowke (9101); archæological collection made by J. D. McGuire (9192). (Deposit.)

Carnegie Museum, Pittsburg, Pa.: Duplicate of the Morse telegraph register used in Baltimore in 1844. (Loan.) 8704. Returned.

Carpenter, G. O., St. Louis, Mo.: Two printed cotton handkerchiefs. (Loan.) 9192.

Carrington, Dr. P. M., Fort Stanton, N. Mex.: Molar of a mammoth (*Elephas columbi*). 41539.

Carroll, Charles, National Military Home, Montgomery County, Ohio: Three case worms representing the species *Thyridopteryx ephemeræformis* Stephens. 41470.

Carter, Mrs. Catherine A., Mrs. Mary E. Mills, and Mr. R. A. Golden, Washington, D. C.: Spinning wheel and cards owned by Mrs. Catherine A. Golden. 42851.

Carter, Brig. Gen. W. H., U. S. Army, received through War Department: Hoe and trowel dug from the ruins of Jamestown, Va., by Lieutenant Barney, U. S. Army. 41941.

Cary, Merritt, Biological Survey, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Seventeen butterflies from Canada. 42777.

Cathcart, Miss E. W. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

Caudell, A. N., Department of Agriculture: Lizard, snake, and frog from Kaslo, British Columbia (41754); 19 insects from Iowa and Assiniboia (41900); specimen of *Planorbis* from British Columbia (42290). (See also under Dr. H. G. Dyar and Prof. C. P. Gillette.)

Caudell, A. N., R. P. Currie and Dr. H. G. Dyar: Worm from Kaslo, British Columbia. 41365.

Central Railroad Company of New Jersey, Jersey City, N. J.: Received through F. G. Sherman, superintendent of telegraph. Telephone transmitter, telephone receiver, and a magneto-telephone bell (41502); electrical instrument (41557).

Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York. (See under Smithsonian Institution.)

Chamberlain, E. B., Washington, D. C.: Twenty-two specimens of *Pteridophyta* from Maine (42269); 105 cryptogams, principally mosses, from the northeastern section of the United States (42471); 30 specimens of mosses from New England (42788). Exchange.

Chamberlain, F. M. (See under Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Fisheries.)

Chamberlain, Rev. L. T., New York City: Thirty specimens of rare exotic Naiades, new to the Museum collection. 41773.

Chandonnet, Z. L., Fosston, Minn.: Four plants from Minnesota. 42484.

Chapman, Mrs. C. N.: Received through F. C. P. Davey, Sault Ste. Marie, Mich. Eskimo and Indian clothes and curiosities. Purchase. 41731.

Chapman, S. B., Swannanoa, N. C.: Two caddis-worms and their cases. 42908.

Chapman, Rev. ——., Christ Church Mission, Anvik, Alaska: Fossil horn core of a musk ox. 41564.

Charnay, Désiré, Paris, France: Casts of Tikal, Temple of the Sun; Sacrifice of the Tongue; and lintel of Quetzalcoatl. Purchase. 42420. L. P. X.

CHASE, Miss ALICE, Washington, D. C.: One hundred and ninety-eight plants from the region of Lake Michigan. 41990.

CHASE, NATHAN BROWN, Bethesda, Md.: Received through Mrs. Susan Brown Chase. Gilt dress sword presented to Gen. Jacob Brown, U. S. Army, by the senate and assembly of the State of New York for services in the war of 1812. 42794.

CHASE, Mrs. SUSAN BROWN, Bethesda, Md.: Order of procession for the funeral of Major-General Brown. (Gift.) 42665. Gold snuff box, presented to Gen. Jacob Brown, U. S. Army, by the city of New York for services in the war of 1812. (Loan.) 9443. (See also under Nathan Brown Chase.)

CHELSEA CLOCK COMPANY, Boston, Mass.: Received through Charles H. Pearson, treasurer. Chelsea navy clock and Chelsea ship's bell clock. 42910.

CHESNUT, Dr. V. K., Department of Agriculture: Twenty specimens of land and fresh-water shells (41517); plant from the Yellowstone National Park (41536).

CHEVALLIER, L. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

CHICHESTER, WILLIAM S., Aquasco, Md.: Specimen of fossil wood. 41694.

CHIPMAN, C. H., Curtis Mills, Fla.: Copper coin, 12 gros, Urban VIII, 1625–44. Purchase. 42006.

CHRISTIANIA, NORWAY, KONGELIGE FREDERIKS UNIVERSITET: Received through Prof. Robert Collett. Eight specimens of reptiles and batrachians from Madagascar, South Africa, Australia, and Formosa. 41775.

CLAPP, G. H., Pittsburg, Pa.: Four species of land shells from various American localities, representing cotypes of species lately described. 41585.

CLARK, A. HOWARD, U. S. National Museum: Pamphlet containing historical view of Philadelphia. 42094.

CLARK, Prof. H. L., Olivet, Mich.: Specimen of Tree-frog, *Hyla evittata*, from Easton, Md. 41491.

CLARKE, Prof. F. W. (See under V. H. Goldschmidt and Isadore Wise.)

CLARKE, Dr. J. M., State paleontologist, Albany, N. Y.: Two plaster restorations of *Eurypterus*. 41959.

CLEMENTS, F. E., Nebr.: Twenty-five plants from Colorado. Purchase. 42112.

CLIFT, J. O. (See under South Side Sportsmens' Club.)

CLIFTON, R. S., Bureau of Entomology, Department of Agriculture: Specimen of *Ambystoma* from Annapolis Junction, Md. 41550.

COCKERELL, Prof. T. D. A., East Las Vegas, N. Mex.: Three hundred and twenty-seven insects from New Mexico (41251); 2 specimens of land shells from Mexico (41321); specimen of Alysiid, *Idiaste megacephala* Ashm. (41458); 3 specimens of Hymenoptera (41465); 9 specimens of parasitic Hymenoptera (41499); 4 species of Carboniferous brachiopods from Pecos, N. Mex. (41500); 65 insects, including 54 specimens of Orthoptera, 3 of Diptera, and 6 of Hymenoptera from Colorado Springs (41658); 233 specimens of miscellaneous insects (42356); 2 plants from Colorado (42743).

COCKLE, J. W., Kaslo, British Columbia: Eleven specimens of insects (41735); 3 specimens of Lepidoptera, including 2 types (42656).

COFFIN, T. H., Baltimore, Md.: Received through Mr. D. W. Coquillett. Seven hundred and seventy-five specimens of Diptera, 6 specimens of Hymenoptera, and 10 vials containing mosquitoes in an early stage. 42209.

COHEN, REUBEN S., Cambridge, Mass.: Ten silver coins of Morocco. 41580.

COHN, Mrs. A., Carson City, Nev.: Piute basketry water bottle. 42565.

COLEMAN, J. B., Crowley, La.: Walking stick, *Brunneria borealis* Scud. 41757.

COLESTOCK, Miss, Kipple, Pa.: Specimens of land shells from Blair County, Pa. 42876.

COLLETT, Prof. ROBERT. (See under Kongelige Frederiks Universitet, Christiania, Norway).

COLLIER, M. F., president, Aston Rogen Mining Company, Paragould, Ark.: Zinc ore from Sharp County, Ark. 41885.

COLLINS, F. S., Malden, Mass.: One hunhundred plants. Purchase. 41868.

COLTON MARBLE WORKS, Colton, Cal. Specimen of marble. 42463.

COMBS, Mrs. E., Lakeside, Ohio: Fifty specimens of marine algæ collected at Half Moon Bay, San Mateo County, Cal. 41322.

COMMERCE AND LABOR, Department of, Hon. George B. Cortelyou, Secretary. Transferred from Bureau of Fisheries: Types and other specimens of fishes of the Hawaiian Islands; also crustaceans and other invertebrates and a piece of coral (41289); 15 specimens of *Mistichthys luzonensis* from Lake Buhi, Philippine Islands (41408); marine worms from Beaufort, N. C. (41587); received through Dr. B. W. Evermann, 6 plants from Alaska (41819); mollusks, insects, and invertebrates, birds, reptiles, batrachians, and a mammal (41840); 2 plants (41859); about 10,000 specimens of land and fresh-water mollusks collected in and about Lake Maxinkuckee, Indiana, by Dr. Paul Bartsch (41966); skull of a mule obtained by S. G. Worth (42054); 7 specimens of holothurians from Porto Rico (42064); 27 plants from Alaska collected by Prof. C. H. Gilbert (42214); piece of rock containing brachiopods from Albatross dredging station No. 3088 (42291); types and cotypes of fishes collected by the steamer *Albatross* in Japan and Hawaii, received through Prof. C. H. Gilbert (42327); collection of reptiles and batrachians from Indiana, also 3 fishes (42335); reptiles and batrachians from Indiana (42358); 11 plants from northern Maine, collected by Dr. W. C. Kendall (42373); 11 mammals from West Virginia and Maine (42410); miscellaneous specimens of reptiles and batrachians from different localities in the United States (42426); head of a shark, tail of a shark, and a whole specimen collected by Mr. E. L. Berndt in Honolulu (42439); through Dr. B. W. Evermann, crustaceans collected in Lake Maxinkuckee, also crustaceans from different sources (42461); about 2,000 specimens of land and fresh-water shells from various sections of the United States (42500); 246 plants from the vicinity of Karlak, Kadiak Island, Alaska, collected by Cloudsley Rutter (42561); Hawaiian fishes (42563); collection of plants from Alaska, obtained by F. M. Chamberlain (42632); 24 sheets of plants collected in southern Oregon by Dr. B. W. Evermann (42633); collection of turtles made by Prof. W. P. Hay in North America (42749); type specimen of *Anguilla cæca* (42917).

COMMERCE AND LABOR, Dept. of—Con.

COMPUTING SCALE COMPANY, Dayton, Ohio: Received through O. O. Ozias, manager. No. 71 scale. 42103.

CONGDON, J. E. (See under A. A. Heller.)

CONGRESS, LIBRARY OF: Received through Hon. Herbert Putnam, librarian: Hand-made pins with hand-bound heads, found with a mass of manuscripts dated from 1801 to 1819 (41896); through Mr. W. P. Cutter, leather card-case, which is believed to have once been in the possession of Mrs. Dolly Payne Madison (41282).

CONRAD, Dr. H. S., Philadelphia, Pa.: Plant from Pennsylvania. 42635.

COOK, DAVID N., Salem, Mass.: Samples of road material. 42243.

COOK, Prof. M. T., Greencastle, Ind.: Three specimens of Gallwasp, *Dryophanta radicola* Ashm. 42169.

COOK, Dr. O. F., Department of Agriculture: Two hundred and seven spiders and miscellaneous insects from Africa and the Canary Islands; also a mollusk and a lizard. 41788.

COOK, Mrs. T., Sandusky, Ohio: Specimen of water lily from Ohio. 41378.

COOLEY, R. A., Bozeman, Mont.: Toad, *Bufo boreas*. 42445.

COPELAND, E. B. (no address given): Received through Dr. E. L. Greene. Specimen of *Gormannia* from California. 41825.

COPENHAGEN, DENMARK: Zoological Museum of the University. Received through Prof. Th. Mortensen: Echinoderms (41588); through Prof. G. M. R. Levinsen, about 100 species of European Mesozoic and Tertiary bryozoans (42476). Exchange.

COQUILLETT, D. W. (See under T. H. Coffin.)

COTTON, JAMES S. (See under Smithsonian Institution.)

COUMBE, W. W., Gunston, Va.: Skin and skull of *Arctomys* sp. 42647.

COURT, E. J., Washington, D. C.: About 950 specimens of land and fresh-water shells from Harpers Ferry, W. Va. (41494; 41516; 41690; 41714); about 150 specimens of land and fresh-water shells from the District of Columbia (41760); about 550 land and fresh-water shells from Harpers Ferry, W. Va., the District of Columbia, and Cherry Hill, Md. (41964; 42047); 2 specimens of *Succinea ovalis* Say, from Maryland (42533); specimens of land and fresh-water mollusks from Virginia (42877).

COVILLE, F. V., Botanist, Department of Agriculture: Twenty-four specimens of cacti. 42846. (See also under Department of Agriculture.)

COYNE, P. J., Greaterville, Ariz.: Beetle, *Alaus zunianus* Casey; 2 beetles representing the species *Psiloptera drummondi* Laporte and Gory; Hawk-moth *Philampelus typhon* Kulg, and 8 Honey-ants, *Myrmecocystus*. 42909.

CRAIG, R. LEE, Fossil, Wyo.: Three fossil fishes (41622); 3 fossil fishes from a quarry at Kemmerer (42927). Purchase.

CRANE, W. E., Brooklyn, N. Y.: Seventy specimens of Clinton fossils from McKeeys, Pa. Exchange. 42115.

CRAWFORD, J. G., Albany, Oreg. Through Dr. Leonhard Stejneger: Three photographs of archeological specimens. 42562.

CRIDDLE, NORMAN, Aweme, Manitoba, Canada: Three specimens of *Leucobrephos middendorfi*, a rare Lepidoptera. 42527.

CRIPPS, O. N., Aiken, S. C.: "Glass snake," *Ophisaurus ventralis*, from South Carolina. 41660.

CROSBY, F. W., Washington, D. C.: Basaltic lava, garnetiferous sand, and a portion of a tusk of a mammoth (?) from St. Michael and Nome, Alaska (41642); diatomaceous earth from Colby, Wash. (41650); specimens of silicified wood from Glover, Idaho (42205); specimen of molybdenite from near Campo, San Diego County, Cal. (42464); specimen of massive granite from 20 miles east of San Diego (42574).

CROSS, WHITMAN. (See under Interior Department, U. S. Geological Survey.)

CROSSINGHAM, W., U. S. National Museum: Snake (*Coluber guttatus*), from Silver Hill, Md. (41506); salamander (42690).

CROZIER, Brig. Gen. WILLIAM, U. S. Army. (See under War Department.)

CULLEN, O. C. (See under Smithsonian Institution.)

CURRIE, R. P., U. S. National Museum: One hundred and forty specimens of miscellaneous insects from Alberta, North Dakota and Minnesota (41545). (See also under A. N. Caudell; H. G. Dyar; Washington Biologists Field Club; E. B. Williamson.)

CURTISS, A. H., Jacksonville, Fla.: Two hundred and twelve plants from New Providence Island. Purchase. 41606.

CUSHING, Mrs. F. H., Washington, D. C.: Zuñi suit. (Loan.) 9473.

CUSICK, W. C., Union, Oreg.: Two hundred and four plants from Oregon. Purchase. 41815.

CUTTER, W. P. (See under Congress, Library of.)

DALL, Dr. W. H., U. S. Geological Survey: Nine color sketches of fishes painted by the donor while a student under the elder Professor Agassiz, including the species *Holocentrus; Rhombus triacanthus; Perca flava-pupurea;*

DALL, Dr. W. H.—Continued.
Chætodon brownriggii; Mesopion; Pristipoma rodo; Ocyurus chrysurus and *Glyphiodon* (41445); specimen of quartz crystal from Herkimer County, N. Y. (41717); about 140 specimens of West American chitons (41928); 237 specimens, 48 species, of land and marine shells from Alaska, California, Arizona, Mexico, Venezuela, Canada, and other localities (42307); specimen of *Conus tæniatus* (42385).

DAMON, C. A., Fenton, Mich.: Deringer pistols and revolver. (Loan.) 9394. (Returned.)

DAMON, ROBERT F., Weymouth, England: Slab of *Oentacrinus* fossils, slab of *Trigonia clavata*, 18 fossils crinoids, 12 ammonites, and 13 miscellaneous fossils (41838) L. P. X.; meteorites from Bialostock and Krasnojarsk (42053). Purchase.

DANIEL, J. W., jr., Washington, D. C.: Two specimens of Swainson's warbler, *Helinaia swainsoni*, and an Ant thrush, *Thamnophilus* sp. (41309); 5 birds' skins from Mount Rogers, Va. (41483); 3 specimens of *Parus carolinensis* and 1 of *Porzana noveboracensis* from Virginia (41809); small mammals from Virginia (42296); 11 birds' eggs and 2 nests of North American birds (42509).

DAVENPORT, HOMER, Morris Plains, N. J.; Twenty-two birds, principally the downy young of the Impeyan, Golden, Reeve's, and other pheasants (41454); specimen of Sonnerat's jungle fowl, *Gallus sonnerati* (42010); 2 specimens of pheasant, *Chrysodophus pictus* and *Calophasis ellioti* (42583); chicken of a Green jungle-fowl, *Gallus varius* (42819).

DAVEY, F. C. P. (See under Mrs. C. N. Chapman.)

DAVIDSON, A., Los Angeles, Cal.: Two plants from California. 41277.

DAVIDSON, Mrs. A. S., Washington, D. C.: Piece of silver Chinese money. 41937.

DAVIS, Prof. C. ABBOTT, Providence, R. I.: Thirty-eight species of Bermudan shells (41623); 3 shells from Bermuda (42069); cotypes of 2 species and 9 varieties of Bermudan shells (42389); 41 specimens of shells from Bermuda, including 8 lots of cotypes of recently described forms (42628).

DAVIS, Mrs. E. J., Buffalo, N. Y.: Two specimens of unfinished bead work. 42486.

DAVIS, L. F., Le Roy, Kans.: Specimens of *Calamites cistii* Brogn., and *Calamites suckowii* Brogn. (41799); mollusks, pearls, sample of oil, piece of lava and water-worn pebbles (42126).

DAVIS, Dr. S. A., Yonkers, N. Y.: Reptiles and batrachians from Ecuador. 42409.

DAVIS, W. A. (See under Manitou Mineral Springs Company.)

DAWSON, Mrs. M. M., Washington, D. C.: Two Oglala Sioux war bonnets. Purchase. L. P. X. 42560.

DAY, Dr. D. T., U. S. Geological Survey: Specimen of pyrophyllite from Murphy, N. C. (41620); specimens of cassiterite from Gaffney, S. C. (41823); rock from Mariposa County, Cal. (41945); pig iron from Spottswood furnace on the Rappahannock River, Spottsylvania County, Va. (42108); graphite from Bald Mountain, New Hampshire (42536).

DAYTON, C. N., New York City: Nineteen photographs of Mexican ethnological objects. Purchase. 41403.

DEAM, C. C., Bluffton, Ind.: Thirty plants from Indiana (41909; 42265). (See also under A. A. Heller.)

DEAN, Dr. BASHFORD. (See under Dr. F. T. Delfin.)

DE BEERS CONSOLIDATED MINES, Kimberley, South Africa: Received through Gardner F. Williams, general manager. Specimens of rock and blue ground; also concentrates from the Kimberley mines. 42728.

DECKER, G. M., Waco, Tex.: Luna moth. 42886.

DELFIN, Dr. F. T., Valparaiso, Chile: Received through Dr. Bashford Dean, Columbia University, New York City. Deer from Chile. Exchange. 32618.

DEMING, Dr. N. L., Walloon Lake, Mich.: Moth representing the species *Erebus odora* Linnæus. 41451.

DEMOKIDOFF, K., St. Petersburg, Russia: Eighteen hymenopterous parasites (41348; 41547); 12 specimens of *Hymenoptera parasitica* (41738); 23 specimens of parasitic hymenoptera (41924; 42408).

DENMAN, Miss M. S., New Brunswick, N. J.: Slab of stone containing a fossil fish representing the species *Ischchypterus* sp. 41540.

DENNIS, F. M., Albany, N. Y.: Fossil fruit of a palm representing the genus *Sabal*. 41725.

DE PEU, H. P., Jacksonville, Ill.: Specimen of long-tailed Ichneumon fly, *Thalessa lunator* Fabricius. 42835.

DERBY, ORVILLE A., Sao Paulo, Brazil: Diamond-bearing gravel with an imbedded diamond from Minas Geraes, Brazil. 42694. (See also under Antonio M. Magalhaes, jr.)

DERICKSON, Prof. S. H., Lebanon Valley College, Annville, Pa.: Three specimens of *Vespertilio*. 42418.

DESCHAMPS, EMIL, San Jose, Cal.: Collection of natural-history material from Shanghai, China. Purchase. 41273.

DE USERA, VICENTE, Ponce, Porto Rico: Eight stone celts from Porto Rico. 41575.

DIETRICH, Hon. HERMAN R., consul-general, United States of America, Guayaquil, Ecuador: Sample of "Palo de Balsa" or "Balsa log," and a sample of "Bejuco" or wythe. Received through State Department. 42319.

DIMMOCK, GEORGE, Springfield, Mass.: One hundred specimens of larvæ, representing *Culex cantans*, *C. dyari*, and *C.* sp. 42691.

DISBROW, Dr. W. S., Newark, N. J.: Crystal of spodumene, of historic interest, being one of the first known crystals found by Doctor Hitchcock at Huntington, Mass. (41351); 225 minerals from Great Notch, New Jersey, and 3 minerals from Franklin, N. J. (42163).

DIXON, CHARLES, Harlesden, London, England: Twenty-four birds' skins from various localities. 42377.

DIXON, ROLAND B., Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.: Eight Maidu baskets from California. Purchase. 41905.

DOD, F. H. W., Millarville, Alberta, Canada: Received through Dr. H. G. Dyar. Lepidoptera. 42138.

DODGE, BYRON E., Davison, Mich: Thirteen archeological objects (9413); grooved stone axe (9510). (Loan.)

DODGE, C. K., Port Huron, Mich.: Thirty plants from Michigan (42364); 5 specimens of *Laciniaria scariosa* (42421).

DODGE, W. C., Washington, D. C.: Sixty cartridges for small arms. 42429.

DODSON, W. R. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

DORFLINGER, C., & SONS, New York City: Glass model of the "Excelsior" diamond. 42585.

DORRANCE, Miss F., Dorranceton, Pa.: Ten specimens of Amphipods representing the species *Lepidactylis dytiscus* Say, from Mosquito Lagoon, Florida. 42775.

DORSEY, G. A., Field Columbian Museum, Chicago, Ill.: Four Tlinkit house posts and 2 totem posts. Purchase. L. P. X. 42671.

DOWELL, PHILIP, U. S. National Museum: Specimen of *Polygola nuttallii* from Takoma Park, D. C. (41469); about 30 plants, principally ferns, from Staten Island, New York (42270).

DRESDEN, GERMANY: KÖNIGLISCHES ZOOLOGISCHES UND ANTHROPOLOGISCHES-ETHNOGRAPHISCHES MUSEUM: Received through Dr. A. B. Meyer. Three skins of Sturnidæ (exchange) (41464); 125 negatives taken in the Philippine Islands (gift) (41586).

DUBOIS, CONSTANCE GODDARD, Waterbury, Conn.: Small basket, a root used in dyeing baskets, and a few dyed splints. 42646. (See also under American Museum of Natural History.)

DUBOSE, J. H., Huguenot, Ga.: Seventy-two specimens of unios; also human bones (41552); skull found along the

DUBOSE, J. H.—Continued.
base of one of the old Rembert Indian mounds near the bank of Savannah River, Petersburg District, Ga. (41816); spider (42887).

DUGÈS, Dr. A., Guanajuato, Mexico: Received through Department of Agriculture. Plant from Mexico. 42378.

DUNLAP, R. G. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

DYAR, Dr. H. G., and R. P. Currie, U. S. National Museum: A. N. Caudell, Department of Agriculture: 18,355 insects, consisting of Arachnida and Myriapoda from British Columbia (41365); collection of Lepidoptera, comprising 20,320 specimens from British Columbia (41463).

DYAR, Dr. H. G. (See under Theo. Bryant; F. H. W. Dod; H. D. Merrick, Washington Biologists' Field Club.)

EARLE, Mrs. ALICE MORSE, Brooklyn, N. Y.: Three bayberry candles. 42627.

EASTERBROOK, Miss ELVA, Camden, N. J.: Twenty-seven Confederate notes. 41313.

EASTMAN KODAK COMPANY, Rochester, N. Y.: Eastman-Walker roll-holder, 1885; Eastman detective camera of 1887; kodak of 1888; 4-folding kodak of 1890; B. daylight kodak of 1892; pocket kodak of 1895; folding kodak of 1902; folding kodak of 1903. 41782.

EASTWOOD, Miss ALICE, Academy of Natural Sciences, San Francisco, Cal.: Fifteen plants from California (41232; 41278; 41286; 41381; 42816); specimen of *Woodwardia* sp. from California (41324). (See also under Department of Agriculture.)

EDMUNDOZ, JUAN C., Kingsford, Fla.: Fossil teeth from Florida. Purchase. 41308.

EDSON, G. E., St. Albans, Vt.: Six fossil brachiopods. 41911.

EDWARDS, A. J. (See under Dr. R. E. C. Stearns.)

EGYPT EXPLORATION FUND, London, England. (See under Smithsonian Institution.)

EHRENSBERGER, FRITZ, Eichstätt, Bavaria, Germany: Ninety-two specimens of Jurassic invertebrates from the quarries of Eichstätt (purchase) (41914); 9 specimens of squids, crabs, and worms from the same quarries (purchase) (42143); fossil fishes (purchase) L. P. X. (42477).

ELDER, J. H., Atlanta, Ga.: Fossorial wasp, representing the species *Specius speciosus* Drury. 42480.

ELGIN, G. D., Port Orford, Oreg.: Longicorn beetle, *Rosalia melancholia* Motsch, and a Buprestid beetle, *Buprestis adjicta* Horn. 41766.

ELMER, A. D. E., Palo Alto, Cal.: Five hundred and forty-eight plants from California. Purchase. 41828.

EMERSON, W. O., Haywards, Cal.: Forty-seven birds' skins from California. 42572.

EMERY, J. S., Emeryville, Cal.: Small cube of granite from Newcastle Island, near Nanaimo, British Columbia. 41732.

EMMONS, Lieut. G. T., U. S. Navy, Princeton, N. J.: Stone pile driver from Knights Inlet, British Columbia, and a Klikitat basket from Victoria; also 2 fish bags from Victoria (purchase) (41495); ethnological material from the northwest (purchase) L. P. X. (41512); 14 antique baskets from Thompson River, Alaska, and 2 awls made by the Thompson River Indians of British Columbia (purchase) (41665); ivory implement from northern Alaska (exchange) (41874); 2 killing clubs, 5 feast spoons, and a Shaman blanket (purchase) L. P. X. (42081); basket shot pouch made by the Tlinkit Indians of Sitka (exchange) (42338); Chilkat blanket shirt (purchase) L. P. X. (42526); ethnological material from British Columbia (exchange) (42638).

ENGLISH, G. L., New York City: Specimens of minerals and ores. Purchase. L. P. X. 41879.

ESHNAUR, Mrs. N. M., Terminal Island, San Pedro, Cal.: About 25 specimens of marine shells (*Renilla*) (Benedict) from California (42000); specimens of *Bittium* from California (42345); 5 speci-

ESHNAUR, Mrs. N. M.—Continued.
mens of bryozoans and a fragment of a sponge from Catalina Channel (42546).

ESTEY, Mrs. J. J. (See under National Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution.)

EUREKA SLATE COMPANY, Slatington, Cal.: Specimen of blue and gray slate from a quarry at Slatington. 41973.

EVANS, Dr. A. W., New Haven, Conn.: Thirty-six specimens of *Hepaticæ* from Jamaica (exchange) (42299).

EVANS, Dr. R. H., Demerara Museum, Georgetown, Demerara: Eight skins of Hoatzin or "Stink bird," with two nests and branches on which they were found. Purchase. L. P. X. 42104.

EVERMANN, Prof. B. W., Bureau of Fisheries, Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D. C.: Six fossil plants from Chignik, Alaska. 41647. (See also under Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Fisheries.)

FAIRBANKS, Mrs. C. W. (See under National Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution.)

FAWCETT, H. S., Salem, Ohio: Five specimens of *Nymphæa advena* Ait from Salem. 41301.

FAXON, Dr. WALTER. (See under Museum of Comparative Zoology, Cambridge, Mass.)

FEATHERSTONHAUGH, Dr. THOMAS, Washington, D. C.: Bell-mouthed blunderbuss. 42452.

FELT, Dr. E. P., Albany, N. Y.: Two specimens of parasitic Hymenoptera. 42458.

FENYES, Dr. A., Pasadena, Cal.: Two specimens of beetles representing the species *Palæoxenus dohrnii* Horn. 41899.

FERNALD, Dr. H. T., Hatch Experiment Station, Amherst, Mass.: Three slides of *Thysanoptera* representing cotypes of species described by Doctor Hinds. 41932. (See also under Dr. A. D. Morrill.)

FERNEKES, VAL., Milwaukee, Wis.: Five specimens of Lepidoptera. 42334.

FERNOW, Dr. B. E. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

FERRISS, J. H., Joliet, Ill.: Leaves of *Panax*. 41426.

FEWKES, Dr. J. WALTER, Bureau of American Ethnology, Washington, D. C.: Wax candle or taper from Porto Rico (41390); carib hammock, cassara strainer, fans, and a set of ropé harness (42911). (See also under Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology, and Señor Arturo Subiña.)

FIELD COLUMBIAN MUSEUM: Specimen of *Xapus alleni* (exchange) (41295); meteorite from Brenham, Kiowa County, Kans. (purchase) L. P. X. (42367); piece of a meteorite from Mexico (exchange) (42907).

FIELD, GEORGE, Washington, D. C.: Received through Otto Heidemann. Specimen of East Indian beetle, *Dioxenes dendrobii*. 41479.

FINK, JOHN, Nashua, Fla.: Tooth of a mammoth, and piece of a fossil bone. 42147.

FIRST ZOOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF THE IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY. (See under Vienna, Austria.)

FISHER, Dr. A. K., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of *Mammillaria* from Texas (41394); snake (*Ophibolus getulus*), from Annapolis Junction, Md. (41438); 5 birds' nests and 5 birds' eggs from Guadeloupe Island (42153); carapace of a large snapping-turtle, *Chelydra serpentina* (42219).

FISHER, H. L., Califon, N. J.: Received through Department of Agriculture. Plant from New Jersey. 42837.

FISHERIES, U. S., Bureau of. (See under Department of Commerce and Labor.)

FISKE, WILLIAM F., Department of Agriculture: Three hundred specimens of Lepidoptera from Tryon, N. C. (42193); 19 specimens of Myriapoda from the same State (42678).

FLETCHER, Dr. JAMES, Ottawa, Canada: Twenty-five specimens of Orthoptera (42003); 2 inflated larvæ of *Semaphora* (42031); 4 moths (42316); 12 specimens

FLETCHER, Dr. JAMES—Continued.
of Lepidoptera, types of new species described by the donor (42757).

FOERSTE, A. F., Dayton, Ohio: Specimens of Ordovician fossils. 41532.

FOHS, F. J., Marion, Ky.: About five hundred specimens of Middle Chester fossils (41307); fluorite crystals from Hardin County, Ill. (41435). Exchange.

FOOTE MINERAL COMPANY, Philadelphia, Pa.: Minerals and ores (purchase) L. P. X. (41881); 3 specimens of fayalite from Rockport, Mass.; specimens of hanksite from Borax Lake, California, and a specimen of selenite from South Dakota (purchase) L. P. X. (41946); 14 minerals (purchase) L. P. X. (42235); polished slab of rose quartz from Black Hills, S. Dak. (exchange) (42704).

FOOTE, PIERSON & Co., New York City: Received through Clarence A. Stimpson. Morse telegraph apparatus, consisting of a relay, sounder, key, and resonator (41949); twentieth century telegraph key (42158).

FORBES BROTHERS, San Rafael, Cal.: Two specimens of jasper. 42241.

FORBUSH, E., care United States consul, Port-au-Prince, Haiti: Twelve specimens of land shells from Haiti. 41902.

FORRESTER, ROBERT, Salt Lake City, Utah: Fifteen specimens of minerals (41630); specimen of martite from Iron County, Utah (41713). Exchange.

FOSTER, WILLIAM T., Sapucay, Paraguay: Thirty-five specimens of Coleoptera (41709); 59 moths from Paraguay (42498). Purchase.

FOWKE, GERARD, Bureau of American Ethnology, Washington, D. C.: Cave material from Colossal Cave, near Mammoth Cave, Ky. 41722. (See also under Carnegie Institution.)

FOWLER, GEORGE L., New York City: Two colored drawings of locomotives (41877); 10 tracings of steamboat machinery (41878). Purchase.

FOWLER, J. O., Annapolis, Md.: Specimens of Eocene fossils from near Annapolis (42534; 42576; 42739).

FRAILE, M., Washington, D. C.: Two specimens of cultivated *Hawarthia* (41360); plants from Texas and the District of Columbia (42331; 43786).

FRANCK, GEORGE. (See under American Entomological Company.)

FRANKLIN, Dr. MELVILLE, Philadelphia, Pa.: Thirty-three photographs of eminent musicians. 41357.

FRAZEE, W. E., Columbus, Miss.: Moth (*Citheronia regalis* Fabr.). 41420.

FREDENDALL, Miss, Tucson, Ariz.: Specimen of Sphinx moth, *Philampelis achemon* Drury. 41414.

FREDHOLM, A., Fort Drum, Fla.: Received through Department of Agriculture. Six specimens of Caddis-flies. 41931.

FRENCH, Dr. CECIL, Washington, D. C.: Two wild turkeys representing the species *Meleagris silvestris*. 42156.

FRIC, V., Prague, Bohemia: Fifty-five specimens of fossils from the Paleozoic formations of Bohemia. Purchase. 41836.

FRIERSON, L. S., Frierson, La.: Five specimens of fresh-water shells from Japan (41777); four shells of *Anodonta* from Japan (41891).

FRIESSER, JULIUS, Holland, Mich.: Eighteen skins and skulls of bats and 84 specimens of alcoholic bats. Purchase. 42919.

FRISBY, R. H. (See under Swift and Company.)

FUCHS, CHARLES, San Francisco, Cal. Seventeen specimens of Coleoptera. 41486.

FUCHS, Dr. THEODORE. (See under Vienna, Austria, K. K. Naturhistorisches Hofmuseum.)

FUERTES, L. A. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

FULLER, C. V., Grand Ledge, Mich.: Bar amulet (42218); cast of bannerstone (42666).

FURGESON, J. M., Kingsville, Tex.: Four plants. 42569.

FYLES, Rev. T. W., Levis, Quebec, Canada: Two specimens of dragon flies (41737); 2 specimens of Lepidoptera

FYLES, Rev. T. W.—Continued.
and 2 specimens of Odonata (41803); 3 species of Hymenoptera (41393).

GALT & BRO., Washington, D. C.: Two watch movements. 42608.

GANT, J. H., Fort Scott, Okla.: Received through Department of Agriculture. Three specimens of cacti. 42787. (See also under Department of Agriculture.)

GARFIELD HOSPITAL, Washington, D. C.: Brain of a colored man. 41404.

GARRETT, A. O., Salt Lake City, Utah: Twenty-eight plants. 42384.

GEE, N. GIST, Soochow University, Soochow, China: Miscellaneous insects from China (41998); 7 wooden models, consisting of a native small boat, sedan chair, wheelbarrow, agricultural implement, water-wheel and caraboo, tea man, and a jinrikisha (42039).

GEOLOGICAL SURVEY, U. S. (See under Interior Department.)

GERRARD, E. & SONS, Camden, England: Specimen of sheep (*Ovis musimon*) (purchase) L. P. X. (42131); specimen of *Pantholops* sp. (purchase) (42135); mounted specimen of zebra (purchase) (42370).

GICLAS, ELI, Flagstaff, Ariz.: Five plants from Arizona. 42790.

GIFFORD, E. W., Alameda, Cal.: About 40 specimens of fresh-water shells from California. 42070.

GIGLIOLI, Prof. HENRY H., Florence, Italy: Photographic copy of a Haida Indian stone dish. 42396.

GILBERT, Mrs. A. P., Logan, Okla.: Specimen of a Solpugid. 41413.

GILBERT, Prof. C. H. (See under Leland Stanford Junior University; and Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Fisheries.)

GILBERT, Prof. G. K. (See under Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology.)

GILL, Mrs. M. W., Washington, D. C.: One hundred and eighty-two tablets illustrating Indian symbolism. Purchase. L. P. X. (42518; 42598).

GILL, Dr. T. N., Smithsonian Institution: Carabao horn needle for weaving nets,

GILL, Dr. T. N.—Continued.
obtained from the Philippine Islands. 42801.

GILLETTE, Prof. C. P., Fort Collins, Colo.: Twenty-four specimens of Orthoptera, received through A. N. Caudell (42297); 24 specimens of Lepidoptera (42304); 17 specimens of Acridiidæ (42353); 16 specimens of Microlepidoptera (42354); 39 specimens of Lepidoptera (42547).

GILOEIRA, J. J., Vedada, Habana, Cuba: Received through Department of Agriculture. Plant from Cuba. 42822.

GIRAULT, A. A., Blacksburg, Va.: Six cotypes of *Aulacidea solidaginis* Girault and 2 species of parasites (41248); 3 cynipid galls representing the species *Solenozopheria vaccinii* Ashm. (41497); 5 specimens of a Braconid, *Rhogas intermedius* Cr. (41848); 2 specimens of *Hadronotus carinatiferus* Ashm. (42895).

GODING, Hon. F. W. (See under H. J. Brown.)

GOLDEN, R. A. (See under Mrs. Catherine A. Carter.)

GOLDMAN, E. A., Department of Agriculture: Two plants from Mexico. 41300. (See also under Department of Agriculture.)

GOLDMAN, L. J., Berkeley, Cal.: Two specimens of Cotyledon from California. 41593.

GOLDSCHMIDT, V. H.: Received through Prof. F. W. Clarke, U. S. Geological Survey. Specimen of anglesite on galena from Monte Poni, Sardinia. 41233.

GONZALES, G. J., Guaymas, Mexico: Rocks, fossils, and minerals from Mexico. Exchange. 42454.

GOODE, HARRY, Philadelphia, Pa.: Railroad link of obsolete pattern. Purchase. 41645.

GORDON, R. H., Cumberland, Md.: Specimen of *Pseudocrinites perdewi* with arms (42043); specimen of pseudo-meteoric iron from near Cumberland (42382).

GRABHAM, Dr. M., Kingston, Jamaica: Seven adult mosquitoes and larvæ from Jamaica. 42520.

GRAF, THEODORE, Vienna, Austria: Thirty-two heliographs of Græco-Egyptian portraits. 41522.

GRAHAMSTOWN, SOUTH AFRICA, ALBANY MUSEUM: Received through Dr. S. Schönland, director. Two elands. Exchange. 42013.

GRANT, Gen. FREDERICK D., U. S. Army: Illuminated parchment presenting Gen. U. S. Grant with the freedom of the city of Londonderry, Ireland. 42659.

GRANT, G. B. (See under A. A. Heller.)

GRAY HERBARIUM, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.: Two plants from Arizona and New Mexico (41981); plant from Mexico (42785).

GRAY, Mrs. WILL, Soddy, Tenn.: Canary bird. 42221.

GREBLE, Mrs. M. D., Washington, D. C.: Four baskets. Loan. 8909. Returned.

GREELY, Gen. A. W., U. S. Army. (See under War Department.)

GREENE, Dr. E. L. (See under E. B. Copeland and E. Janazerosky.)

GREENE, Dr. H. W., Springfield, Mass. Old-style saw. 42441.

GREER, C. S., Western Union Telegraph Company, Columbus, Ohio.: Telegraph switch board and a Brooks telegraph insulator. 42110.

GREGER, D. K., Fulton, Mo.: Eleven specimens of coal-measure fossils from Washington, Mo. 42029.

GRIFFIN, A. C., Pierre, S. Dak.: Mammal representing the species *Putorius nigripes*. 41741.

GRIFFITHS, DAVID, Department of Agriculture: Plants from Arizona (42083; 42247).

GRIMES, J. H., Durango, Colo.: Received through Max Pracht. Specimen of azurite crystals. 41864.

GRÖNWALL, Dr. CARL A., Copenhagen, Denmark: Four hundred specimens of Cambrian fossils, collected by the donor. Purchase. 42722.

GROUT, Dr. A. J., Brooklyn, N. Y.: Twenty-five specimens of mosses. Purchase. 41800.

GRUBBS, Dr. R. B., U. S. Army, The Presidio, San Francisco, Cal.: Swords, knives, and other articles belonging to the Moro tribes in the vicinity of Lake Lanao, Mindanao, P. I. (8498); carved Nautilus shell (9090). (Loan.)

GRUBER, F. (See under Memorial Museum, Golden Gate Park, San Francisco, Cal.)

GUERIN, T. M., Decatur, Nebr.: Ethnological objects from the islands of Guam and Saipan. 42501.

GUNN, J. M., Laguna, N. Mex.: Fossil bones, including the upper end of humerus and the lower end of femur of a Belodont, *Heterodontosuchus ganei*. 41423.

GUNTHER, Dr. A., British Museum (Natural History), London, England: Mammals, birds, reptiles, and fishes. 42075.

HALL, Dr. C. L., Elbowoods, N. Dak.: Photographs of Indians. 42238.

HALL, C. LYON, Port au Prince, Haiti, West Indies: Shells from Lake Enriquillo, Haiti. 41493.

HALL, H. M., University of California, Berkeley, Cal.: Plant from California (41607); received through Department of Agriculture, 15 plants from California (41787); 3 specimens of *Ribes* from California (41884); 240 plants from California (purchase) (42244).

HALLOCK, CHARLES, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of copper ore from the Windsor Bush mine, near Plainfield, Mass. 41617.

HAMMERSTIEN, H. L., Chicago, Ill.: Two snakes and 2 geckos (41455); also specimen of European viper (41456).

HAMPSON, Sir GEORGE F., British Musem (Natural History), London, England: Seventeen specimens of Lepidoptera from Norway. 42621.

HANDS, E. J., Willcox, Ariz.: Moth. 41343.

HANHAM, A. W., Victoria, B. C.: One hundred and fourteen specimens of Lepidoptera. 41527.

HARPER, ROLAND M., College Point, N. Y.: Three specimens of *Nymphæa*

HARPER, ROLAND M.—Continued.
from Georgia (41302); musical sand from Canoochee River, near Groveland, Ga. (41379); 4 species of land shells (42882).

HARRIMAN ALASKAN EXPEDITION: Received through U. S. Geological Survey. Three boxes containing a collection of rocks and thin sections of rocks. (Transmitted to the Museum through Prof. Charles Palache.) 41844.

HARRIS, GRAHAM H., Chicago, Ill.: Lock Leven Trout, *Salmo levenensis*, from Madison River, Montana. 41707.

HARRIS, J. H. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

HARRIS, L. C., Genoa, Nev.: Received through Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology. Piute bead charm. 42493.

HARSHBARGER, Dr. JOHN W., University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.: Thirty-one plants, principally from North Carolina. Exchange. 41772.

HARTMAN, CARL, Austin, Tex.: Specimen of hymenopterous parasite. 41249.

HARTT, I. H., Manitou, Colo.: Geological specimens from various localities. Purchase. L. P. X. 41753.

HARTWELL, Mrs. CHARLES, Long Beach, Cal.: Specimen of *Ischnochiton* from San Pedro, Cal. 42227.

HARVEY, FRED, Kansas City, Mo.: Fourteen Chinook skulls (purchase) (41387); 23 Chimehuevi baskets and 21 Nez Percé bags (purchase) L. P. X. (41388); 10 Maidu baskets (purchase) L. P. X. (42213).

HARVEY, R. V. Vancouver, British Columbia: Ten specimens of Lepidoptera. 41526.

HASSE, Dr. H. E., Soldiers' Home, Cal.: Four living plants from California (41226); 2 plants and 74 specimens of lichens, principally from California (41956; 42258).

HASSETT, BURDETT, Reliance, Va.: Specimen of Sharp-shinned hawk, *Accipiter velox*. 41503.

HATCH, J. W., Fruitland, N. Mex.: Madstone. (Loan.) 9280.

HATTENDORF, F. C., Western Springs, Ill.: Specimen of Raspberry gall, *Diastrophus turgidus* Bassett. 41849.

HAUTEVILLE, Mrs. F. C. D', Washington, D. C.: Received through Mrs. M. B. Wheaton. Sword and pair of bullion epaulettes, to be placed with other relics of Maj. Gen. Alexander McComb, U. S. Army. (Loan.) 8797.

HAWLEY, E. H., U. S. National Museum: Whistle harmonica. 42831.

HAY, Prof. W. P. (See under Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Fisheries.)

HAYES, W. R., Skidmore, Tex.: Received through Department of Agriculture. Three plants from Texas. 42084.

HEIDEMANN, OTTO, Washington, D. C.: Specimens of *Limnæa* from the District of Columbia. 42861. (See also under George Field.)

HEIGHWAY, A. E., Habana, Cuba: Received through Dr. G. P. Merrill. Four eggs of *Strix flammea furcata*. 42107.

HELLER, A. A., Pacific Grove, Cal.: Two plants from California (gift) (41354); 482 plants from California (purchase) (41814); 639 plants collected by George B. Grant and J. W. Congdon in California (purchase) (41246); 2 plants from California (gift) (41276); 285 plants from California (purchase) (41318); plant from California (gift) (41991); 246 plants from California and Europe (purchase) (42092); 65 ferns from Europe (purchase) (42106); 20 plants from California (gift) (42280; 42591; 42605); about 60 plants from Mexico collected by C. C. Deam (gift) (42637); 10 living plants from California (exchange) (42654; 42655).

HEMPHILL, HENRY, San Diego, Cal.: Sixteen specimens of *Amphithalmus* from California (gift) (42540); photographs of west American shells illustrating variations, etc. (gift) (42614); 649 species or varieties of land shells from California (purchase) (42930).

HENDERSON, Mrs. A. P., Chicago, Ill.: Six samples of beads collected by Carl Lumholtz. 41428.

HENSHAW, H. W., Hilo, Hawaiian Islands: Specimens of Macruran crustaceans (41484); specimen of *Conus cotus* L., and a slide containing a mount of teeth of the same, from Hilo (41759); crustaceans, worms, mollusks, and other invertebrates (41822); crustaceans and a specimen of Flying-gurnard or "Robin," *Dactylopterus* (41854); 540 specimens of Hawaiian Succineas and Achatinellas (41939); crustaceans, worms, and a fish (42062); 30 specimens of fossil land shells from the Hawaiian Islands (42229); 3 specimens of Gephyrean worms (42259); Planarian worm (*Stylochus*?) (42709); crustaceans, echinoderms, worms, and a nudibranch mollusk (42800).

HERRON, W. G., U. S. Geological Survey: Specimen of Sunflower coral, *Receptaculites oweni*, from Big Iron Mountains. 42726.

HEUSNER, Dr. KARL, Belize, British Honduras: Specimens of *Trichuris trichiura* (=*Trichocephalus dispar*). 42323.

HEWITT, FOSTER, Pittsburg, Pa.: Copper ore, and specimens showing weathering, from near the Choix River, Mexico. 42573.

HEYWOOD, Maj. Gen. CHARLES, U. S. Marine Corps (retired), Washington, D. C.: Loving cup of silver presented to him by the officers of the U. S. Marine Corps, on the occasion of his retirement from the service. (Loan.) 9472.

HICKMAN, Dr. C. W., Augusta, Ga.: Pair of Spanish dueling pistols. (Loan.) 8682.

HILL, E. J., Chicago, Ill.: Thirty-seven plants from Illinois. Exchange. 42502.

HILLIARD, G. R., Springfield, Ohio.: Myriapod representing the species *Cermatia forceps* L. 42045.

HILLMAN, F. H. (See under J. Wheeler.)

HIMALAYA MINING COMPANY, New York City: Six specimens of tourmaline from California. Purchase. L. P. X. 42599.

HINDS, W. E. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

HINES, GEORGE H., Oregon Historical Society, Portland, Oreg.: Siliceous pebbles from Oregon. 41626.

HINKLEY, A. A., Dubois, Ill.: Ninety-three specimens of mollusks from the Southern States. 42863.

HIRASE, Y., Kyoto, Japan: One thousand three hundred and fifty-one specimens of shells from Japan (41422); 1,106 specimens of Japanese mollusks (42918). Purchase.

HOCHDERFFER, Col. GEORGE, Flagstaff, Ariz., and C. A. PURPUS, Zacatecas, Mexico: Small collection of fishes from Mexico. 42032.

HODGE, Dr. E. R., Army Medical Museum, War Department, Washington, D. C.: Two bows, bolo, shield, spearheads, and a fishing spear from the Philippine Islands. Exchange. 42024.

HODGMAN, C. M., Waterway, Va.: Two specimens of *Dynastes tityus*. 42689.

HODSON, F. R., Washington, D. C.: One hundred and five plants collected at St. Regis Falls, N. Y. (41305); received through the Department of Agriculture; 44 plants from Maine (41434).

HOLLERITH, HERMAN, Washington, D. C.: Three guns and a pistol. (Loan.) 9304.

HOLT, G. W., East Andover, N. H.: Plant from New Hampshire. 42197.

HOLTZ, MARTIN, Vienna, Austria: Eight reptiles and batrachians from Europe. Purchase. 41389.

HOLWAY, E. W. D., Decorah, Iowa, and Mexico, Mexico: Plants, seeds, and fungi from Mexico (41813; 41834; 41895; 41955; 42035; 42365; 42422).

HOPE GARDENS, Botanical Department of Jamaica. (See under Kingston, Jamaica.)

HOPKINS, L. S., Troy, Ohio: Beetle (*Euphoria inda* Linnæus). 41524.

HOPKINS, S. J., Mount Holly, Va.: Stone axe from a shell heap at the mouth of Nomini Creek, Westmoreland County, Va. 42826.

HORGAN, EDWARD, U. S. National Museum: About 25 specimens of land-shells from Colonial Beach (41433); 18 specimens of caddis worms (42537).

HORNUNG, Dr. JOHN, San Francisco, Cal.: Starfishes, bats, reptiles, shells, fossil, and a bird (exchange) (41952); 120 specimens of marine shells from California (gift) (42223).

HOUGH, Dr. WALTER, U. S. National Museum: Ethnological objects collected in New Mexico (purchase) (41791); specimen of porcupine skull from Arizona; Louisiana lottery ticket, dated December 12, 1893; 12 plaster casts of medals; bound volume of "History of the Soldiers' Medals," and an ancient document relating to the home of Washington (gifts) (41855; 41876; 41975; 42027). (See also under Dr. F. M. Zuck.)

HOUSE, H. D., Bronx Park, N. Y.: Nine specimens of Bryophyta collected in New York by Mr. W. R. Maxon and himself. 42251.

HOVEY, F. L., Auburn, Me.: Specimen of pyrrhotite. 41553.

HOVEY, G. U. S., White Church, Kans.: Fourteen flint implements. 42065.

HOWARD, Dr. L. O. (See under Department of Agriculture; Charles E. Jenney; E. S. G. Titus.)

HOWELL, Arthur. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

HOWELL, A., Lipscomb, Tex.: Specimen of cactus from Texas. 41264.

HOWELL, A. H., Biological Survey, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Fifty-five specimens of plants from New Mexico. 41507.

HOWELL, E. E., Washington, D. C.: Nine quartz crystals, specimen of cut smoky quartz, opal, tabular calcite, cleavage calcite, 3 quartz spheres, and a sphere of crocidolite (purchase) L. P. X. (42049); specimen of sepiolite from Eskihi-Shehr, Asia Minor (exchange) (42544); meteorites (purchase) L. P. X. (42588); meteorite from Mount Joy, Pennsylvania (gift) (42687).

HRDLIČKA, Dr. A. F., U. S. National Museum: Brain of a negro woman (41698); 3 Banderilla from Jalesco, Mexico (41708); specimen of *Junco hyemalis* (41794); Indian sparrow (41916); 25 brains of various birds and mammals (41976); ceremonial stick from Jalesco, Mexico, 2 bands from Huichol, Jalesco, and a pouch-band from the same locality (41980); humerus (42195); 100 brains of various kinds (42249); brain of a red squirrel, *Chickarree* (41254); brain of a white American adult male (41298); Huichol ceremonial band made on a small loom (42348).

HUDSON, JOHN, Dean, Mont.: Fragment of a deer horn. 41646.

HUGHES, Prof. T. McHENRY. (See under Cambridge, England, Sedgwick Museum.)

HUMMEL, GUSTAVE, Luling, Tex.: Received through Department of Agriculture. Plant from Texas. 41340.

HUNGATE, J. W., Snoqualash, Wash.: Six plants from Washington. 41314.

HUNGERFORD BRASS AND COPPER COMPANY, New York City: Received through Mr. B. Ris, assistant secretary. Samples of solders and alloys manufactured by the company. 41339.

HUNTER, D. W. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

HUNTER, WILLIAM, National Zoological Park, Washington, D. C.: Plant. 42658.

IHERING, Dr. H. VON, Museu Paulista, Sao Paulo, Brazil: Sixteen specimens of fresh-water shells. 41999. (See also under Sao Paulo, Brazil.)

INSTITUTO MÉDICO NACIONAL. (See under City of Mexico, Mexico.)

INTERIOR DEPARTMENT, United States Geological Survey: Rock specimens from Bennington quadrangle (41244); specimen of titanium mineral and crude petroleum (41621); sample of sand from Bebara River, Colombia (41745); 1,932 fossil insects collected by Dr. S. H. Scudder (42117); 2 specimens of dentritic limestone from Grand Canyon, Arizona (42157); specimen of fulgurite from Crested Butte, Colo.,

INTERIOR DEPARTMENT—Continued.
collected by Mr. Whitman Cross (42211); specimen of crystallized arsenopyrite from Custer County, Colo., obtained by Mr. Cross (42212); 47 specimens of Cretaceous ammonites, described and figured by Hyatt in monograph No. 44 of the Survey (42253); specimens of tetradymite and garnet from Colorado and California (42333); rocks illustrating the geology of the Bisbee, Ariz., quadrangle (42400); lead and zinc ore from Arkansas, and sulphur and associated rocks from Nevada (42442); collection of Tertiary fossils, including duplicates and study series, containing about 12,000 lots of specimens, and, in the reverse series, about 40,000 specimens, mostly determined, labeled, and arranged in zoological and stratigraphic order (42740); rocks from Oklahoma and Indian Territory, obtained by Mr. T. Wayland Vaughan (42776); 1,458 specimens of Cambrian brachiopods collected by the Survey and 1,842 Cambrian brachiopods collected for the National Museum by Prof. S. Ward Loper (42867); fossil plant obtained by Mr. L. M. Prindle (42888). (See also under Harriman Alaskan Expedition and Dr. David White.)

JACKSON, GEORGE, Deadwood, S. Dak.: Twenty-nine specimens of ore. 41992.

JACKSON, S. E., Trinidad, British West Indies: Received through Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology. Eleven carib axes and 16 specimens of lava from St. Vincent. 42915.

JACOBS, E. H. (See under Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology.)

JAMBUNATHAN, Prof. N. S., Native College, Madura, India: Fifty-two spiders from India. Exchange. 42273.

JAMES, GEORGE WHARTON, Pasadena, Cal.: Seventeen photographs of Indian women making baskets. 41579.

JAMES, Mrs. JULIAN, Washington, D. C.: Masonic relics of Hon. Mordecai Myers, consisting of a jewel of past grand master, apron of past grand master, apron of master mason, and ring of Theodorus Bailey, U. S. Senator from New York in 1803 (loan) (9145); Korean fan presented to her by Prince Minionette of Korea (gift) (41785).

JANAZEROSKY, E., Cracovie, Austria: Received through Dr. E. L. Greene. Two specimens of *Ribes* from Europe. 42903.

JANSON, O. E., & SON, London, England: Twelve hundred and fifty-one specimens of Lepidoptera. Purchase. 41571.

JAYNES, ROBERT T. (See under E. Dwight Sanderson.)

JENNEY, CHARLES E., Fresno, Cal.: Received through Dr. L. O. Howard. Eight specimens of rose-gall, *Rhodites politus*. 42885.

JENSEN, Herr A. S., Zoological Museum, University, Copenhagen, Denmark: Cotype of *Pecten frigidus* Jensen, from the North Atlantic Ocean. 42165.

JEPSON, W. L., Berkeley, Cal.: Five plants from California. 41262.

JOHN, ANDREW, Washington, D. C.: Models of baskets, etc., of the Seneca Indians. Purchase. 41513.

JOHNSON, Prof. O. B., Seattle, Wash.: Seventy-three specimens of Lepidoptera. Exchange. 42539.

JOHNSON, S. ARTHUR. (See under State Agricultural College, Fort Collins, Colo.)

JONASSOHN, OSCAR T., New York City: Manufactured ruby (purchase) (41475); genuine and imitation stones (gift) (41476).

JONES, A. W., Salina, Kans.: Received through Dr. T. W. Stanton. Concretions of silicobarite from near Bavaria, Kans. 41944.

JONES, Mrs. B. F., Bordentown, N. J.: Colonial bill of New Jersey, "one shilling," March 25, 1776. 41835.

JONES, FRANCIS W., New York City: Photograph of eminent electricians. Purchase. 42012.

JONES, McDUFFEE, and STRATTON COMPANY, Boston, Mass.: China plate and calendar file. 42173.

JONES, MARCUS E., Salt Lake City, Utah: Seven plants from Mexico and Arizona (gift and exchange) (41514; 41786; 42590).

JORDAN, Dr. DAVID STARR. (See under Leland Stanford Junior University and Alan Owston.)

JOSEPH, LEE, Cuero, Tex.: Last molar of a mastodon (*Mastodon americanus*). 41371.

JOYNES, A. L., manager of East Tennessee Telephone Company, Paducah, Ky.: Specimen of submarine cable laid across the Tennessee River at Paducah before the civil war. 41534.

JUNG, A. M., Desmet, Idaho: Four fossil plants. 42834.

KAPP, HOMER, Bluffton, Ind.: Received through Prof. E. B. Williamson. Specimen of Vesper rat (*Nyctomys*) from Bluffton. 41833.

KARPELES, Dr. S. R., Washington, D. C.: Human fœtus; fœtus; white fœtus (gift) (41860; 42511; 42517); two human fœtuses (exchange) (42261).

KEARFOTT, W. D., New York City: Nine specimens of hymenopterous parasites (41452); 463 specimens of butterflies belonging to the family Hesperidæ (42076).

KEARNEY, T. H., Department of Agriculture: Two hundred and ten plants collected on Plummers Island, Montgomery County, Md. (41450; 41461; 41467; 41518).

KELLOGG, Prof. V. L., Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal.: Cotypes of Aleyrodidæ represented by 24 species. 41767.

KENDALL, Dr. W. C., Bureau of Fisheries: Two specimens of *Nymphæa hybrida* from Aroostook County, Me. 41297. (See also under Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Fisheries.)

KENNEDY, Dr. HARRIS, Yokohama, Japan: Six bats from Japan. 42808.

KESSLER, H. H., El Cajon, Cal.: Specimen of orbicular gabbro from San Diego County (41230); orbicular diorite from near San Diego (42113).

KEW, LONDON, ENGLAND, ROYAL BOTANIC GARDENS: Two hundred and seventy-eight plants from various localities (42381); living plant (42487). Exchange.

KING, G. B., Lawrence, Mass.: Shell representing the species *Limax maximus*. 41429.

KINGSTON, JAMAICA, HOPE GARDENS, Botanical Department of Jamaica: Three specimens of ferns (*Asplenium*) from Jamaica. Exchange. 42411.

KINNEY, Mrs. LOUISE CATLIN, Washington, D. C.: Life-sized portrait of George Catlin, in oil, painted by a Royal Academician in 1849. (Loan.) 9419.

KINRADE, J. J., San Francisco, Cal.: Twelve specimens of minerals from various localities. Purchase. L. P. X. 41636.

KIRK, W. STOKES, Philadelphia, Pa.: New Hall carbine, .54 caliber. 42467.

KISHINOUYÉ, Dr. K., Imperial Japanese Fisheries Bureau, Tokyo, Japan: Japanese corals (41407); received through Dr. Hugh M. Smith, 2 specimens of *Salanx ariakensis* and a crab (41430).

K. K. NATURHISTORISCHES HOFMUSEUM. (See under Vienna, Austria.)

KLAGES, E. A., Crafton, Pa.: Twenty-eight specimens of Scarabæidæ (41353); 117 specimens of Scarabæidæ (41719); hemipteron representing the species *Scaptocoris castanea* Perty, from Venezuela (41764).

KNAB, FREDERICK, Washington, D. C.: Six specimens of caddis flies, a may-fly, and a wood-tick. 42725.

KNOWLTON, Dr. F. H., U. S. Geological Survey. Two hundred specimens of Lepidoptera from Needle Mountains and Silverton, Colo. (42386); 128 plants from Colorado (42407). (See also under H. Nehrling.)

KNY-SCHEERER COMPANY, New York City: Two specimens of batrachians representing the species *Rana macrodactyla* and *Hyla simplex* (purchase) (42028); 7 birds' skins (gift) (42570).

KOENIG, ADOLF, Pittsburg, Pa.: Two stone hammers and two cupped stones. 42714.

KONGELIGE FREDERIKS UNIVERSITET. (See under Christiania, Norway.)

KÖNIGLICHES BOTANISCHES MUSEUM. (See under Berlin, Germany.)

KÖNIGLICHES MUSEUM FÜR NATURKUNDE. (See under Berlin, Germany.)

KÖNIGLICHES MUSEUM FÜR VÖLKERKUNDE. (See under Berlin, Germany.)

KÖNIGLICHES ZOOLOGISCHES UND ANTHROPOLOGISCHES-ETHNOGRAPHISCHES MUSEUM. (See under Dresden, Germany.)

KOONS, B. F., Brooklyn, N. Y.: Specimen of *Limax maximus* Linnæus. 41521.

KRANTZ, Dr. F., Bonn, Germany: Two slabs of *Pentacrinus* (purchase) L. P. X. (41349); 204 invertebrate fossils from the Devonian of Germany and the Carboniferous of Belgium (purchase) (41903); 51 specimens of fossil shells, ammonites, crinoids, etc. (purchase) (42144); lumachel, chrysoprase, tridymite, and quartz from Europe (purchase) L. P. X. (42181); specimen of *Steneosaurus bollensis* (Jaeger) from the Lias of Holzmaden, Wurttemberg, Germany (purchase) L. P. X. (42225); specimen of *Ichthyosaurus* and a fossil palm (purchase) L. P. X. (42676).

KRAUS, JOSEPH, Llano, Tex.: Three specimens of dolomitic marble (42059); 3 specimens of dendritic limestone (42809).

KUNZ, G. F., New York City: Specimen of californite from Indian Creek, California. 42332.

KWIAT, A., Chicago, Ill.: Forty-four specimens of Lepidoptera (42274; 42713).

LACEY, HOWARD, Kerrville, Tex.: Skin and 2 skulls of *Odocoileus texensis*. 42641.

LAMB, Dr. D. S., Army Medical Museum, Washington, D. C.: Two cadavers of babies (41610); brain and body of a female baby (42277).

LANDRUM, LINTON D., Columbus, Miss.: Natural formation. 41487.

LANE, H. M., International Correspondence Schools, Scranton, Pa.: Received through Dr. David White. Two specimens of *Bothrodendron punctatum*. 41727.

LANE, H. M.—Continued.

LANE, T. T., Solomon, Alaska: Received through E. J. Noge. Butterfly representing the species *Parnasius clodius* var. *altaurus* Dyar. 41480.

LANEY, F. B., State Museum, Raleigh, N. C.: Six hundred pounds of leopardite and trap dike from Charlotte, N. C. (purchase) (42060); gangue rock from Gundstaff and Buchanan mica mine, Haywood County, N. C. (42448). (See also under G. P. Merrill.)

LANG, G. L., superintendent of telegraphs, Chattanooga, Tenn.: Telegraph bracket from General Burnside's wartime telegraph line, Pulaski County, Ky. 41490.

LARABOLA MINING AND DEVELOPMENT COMPANY, Chicago, Ill.: Received through Frank L. Race, secretary. Samples of copper ore from mines in Madison County, Va. 42242.

LAUE, F. A., Passaic, N. J.: Specimens of Dog-sucking louse, *Hæmatopinus piliferus* Burmeister. 41437.

LAWRENCE, W. H., Pullman, Wash.: Seven slides of parasitic Hymenoptera. 41897.

LAWRENCE, Dr. W. J., Chicago, Ill.: Section of polished tourmaline. 41478.

LEE, Dr. S. L., Carson City, Nev.: Obsidian arrowhead and two flaking tools. 42756.

LEHMAN, J. B., Edwards, Miss.: Specimen of Horntail, *Tremex columba*. 42883.

LELAND STANFORD JR. UNIVERSITY, Stanford University, Cal.: Types and cotypes of fishes collected in Japan by Dr. David Starr Jordan, Mr. J. O. Snyder, and others (41488); received through Prof. C. H. Gilbert, Japanese fishes collected by Messrs. Jordan and Snyder (42263).

LEMON, FRANK, New York City: Four busts of American Indians. Purchase. L. P. X. 42731.

LEPPER, Miss ADELAIDE, Bladensburg, Md.: Luna moth, *Actias luna* Linnæus. 42643.

LERMOND, N. W., Thomaston, Me.: Fifteen specimens of shells (41893); butterflies from Paraguay (42267).

LESTER, F. A., Washington, D. C.: Specimens of fossil wood from various localities in the District of Columbia (41961); concretionary limonite and ironstone concretions from the District of Columbia (41974; 42548); 25 specimens of Upper Cretaceous mollusks from a cutting in the Chesapeake Beach Railroad (42717).

LEVINSEN, Prof. G. M. R. (See under Copenhagen, Denmark.)

LIMBERG, F., Ladd Lime Company, Cartersville, Ga.: Crab spider, *Acrosoma gracili* Walck (=*Eperia rugosa* Hentz). 41259.

LITTLE, Dr. G. W., Glens Falls, N. Y.: Specimen of Crimson tragopan (41917); specimen of Impeyan pheasant (42305).

LOCKHART, HENRY, jr., Barranca del Cobre, Chihuahua, Mexico: Specimen of Mycetophilid, a family allied to the mosquitoes. 41801.

LOCRAFT, WILLIAM, Washington, D. C.: Large specimen of Small-mouthed Black bass, *Micropterus dolomei*, from the Potomac River. 41808.

LOESNER, TH., Berlin, Germany: Five plants from Guatemala. 42008.

LONDON, ENGLAND, BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY): Six bats. 42485.

LOPER, Prof. S. WARD. (See under Interior Department, U. S. Geological Survey.)

LOVETT, EDWARD, Croydon, England: Specimens of "tribulum," or harrow flint, and other folk-lore objects (exchange) (42021); 3 pieces of Maundy money of Edward VII, of the issue of 1904 (42612).

LOWE, H. N., Long Beach, Cal.: Twelve specimens of Anomurans (Blepharipoda) (41228); marine shells including types of several new species from Long Beach (42057); 16 specimens of marine shells from California (42166, 42228); crustaceans (42663).

LOWRIE, E. D., Elyria, Ohio: About one hundred specimens of amphipods from Elyria. 42326.

LOWRY, LOUIS, Chicago, Ill.: Specimen of copper ore from Milans Gap. Exchange. 42159.

LUCAS, F. A., U. S. National Museum: Brain of a walrus (41477); skin of Snowy owl, *Egretta candidissima* (41971); crustaceans and worm parasites from Newfoundland (42257).

LUMHOLTZ, CARL. (See under Mrs. A. P. Henderson.)

LUSK, R. D., Lansing, Mich.: Four eggs and a nest of *Myiarchus lawrencei olivascens* from Arizona. Purchase. 41781.

LUTZ, FRANK E., Station for Experimental Evolution, Cold Spring Harbor, Long Island, New York: Eight specimens of Hemiptera. 42850.

LYON, Dr. M. W., U. S. National Museum: Three specimens of *Nymphæa variagata* (Engelm) Miller (41346); 24 plants from New Jersey (41441); 2 specimens of *Mus musculus* (42055).

LYWOOD, L. W., Gainsville, Va.: Specimen of Blue-winged teal, *Querquedula discors*. 42503.

MAC FADDEN, C. K., Beaumont, Tex.: Snake (*Elaps fulvius*) from Hardin County, Tex. 41982.

MCCALLIE, Dr. S. W., Geological Survey of Georgia, Atlanta, Ga.: New species of *Pentremites* (42792); received through Dr. David White, specimen of *Tregonocarpum ampulliforme* from the Carboniferous of Georgia (42844).

MCCLENDON, J. F., University of Texas, Austin, Tex.: One hundred and twenty-five specimens of dragon-flies. Purchase. 42155.

MCCOMB, Maj. Gen. ALEX. (See under Mrs. F. C. d'Hautville.)

MCCOMB, G. T., Lockport, N. Y.: Specimens of Rochester shales fossils. 41711.

MCCOY, P. H., Chicago, Ill.: Specimen of *Melanopsis jordanica*. 42515.

MCCREADY, S. M., Green Lake Station, Seattle, Wash.: Longicorn beetle, *Ergates spiculatus* Le Conte. 42180.

MCDOWELL, J. A., City of Mexico, Mexico: Plant from Mexico. 42082.

McElwee, W., Washington, D. C.: Flicker, or Golden-winged woodpecker, *Colaptes auratus*. 42579.

McGee, W J, Washington, D. C.: Skull of a Nebraska Indian. (Loan.) 8641. (See also under Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology.)

McGregor, Mrs. A. M., Mamaroneck, N. Y.: Two specimens of *Voluta junonia* from Florida. 42541.

McGregor, R. C., Philippine Museum, Manila, P. I.: Specimens of mollusks and myriapods from the Philippine Islands and the United States (42346); butterflies from Calangan Island (42566).

McGuire, J. D. (See under Carnegie Institution.)

McKay, C. M., Portland, Oreg.: Three specimens of agate. Purchase. L. P. X. 41634.

McKim, C. E. (See under Pennsylvania Railroad Company.)

McKnew, C. A. (See under B. A. Bean.)

McKusick, M. N., Calais, Me.: Specimen of molybdenite from Cooper mine, Cooper, Me. 41721.

McLean, D., Rampart, Alaska: Received through Dr. T. W. Wilcox, U. S. A. (retired). Horns of a fossil bison with partial crania. 41710.

McLean, Mrs. J. J., Washington, D. C.: Basket and four beaded collars from California (purchase) (41780); 2 squirrel-skin robes (gift) (42843).

McLellan, Capt. C. H., U. S. Revenue-Cutter Service: Stone arrowhead and wooden spearhead. (Loan.) 9112.

Madeley, William, Stourbridge, England: Specimens of Wenlock shales bryozoans. Exchange. 42459.

Magalhaes, Antonio M., Jr., Sao Paulo, Brazil, South America: Received through Dr. Orville A. Derby. Three specimens of fossil wood from Lagoa station, on the Mogyana Railroad near Casa Branca, São Paulo. 42836.

Major, Dr. C. T. Forsyth, British Museum (Natural History), London, England: Ten skeletons and 2 skulls of mammals. Purchase. 41562.

Man, Dr. J. G. de, Ierseke, Zeeland, Holland: Received through Miss M. J. Rathbun. Two specimens of fresh-water crabs (*Potamon convexus*), from Java. 41894.

Manhattan Electrical Supply Company, New York City: Received through Mr. C. A. Stimpson. Morse telegraph apparatus, consisting of a relay, sounder, and key. 41948.

Manitou Mineral Springs Company, Manitou, Colo.: Received through Mr. W. A. Davis. Specimens of Manitou mineral water. 42543.

Marston, Weir, Fort Snelling, Minn.: Salamander (*Ambystoma tigrinum*). 41523.

Martin, A. F., Jersey Shore, Pa.: Long-sting, *Megarhyssa lunator* Fabr. 41252.

Marvin, Dr. M. F., U. S. Army, Manila, P. I.: Reptiles; ferns and insects; 3 specimens of Mole-crickets; insects, spiders, myriapods, and algæ (42119, 41291, 41412, 42276).

Mason, Prof. O. T., U. S. National Museum: Report of the inaugural ceremonies of President Cleveland and Vice-President Stevenson, 1893. 41716.

Mason, R. F., Carbondale, Pa.: Whitney revolver. Loan. 42925.

Massey, Charles F., Salisbury, N. C.: Specimen of granite from near Salisbury. 42224. (See also under Dr. G. P. Merrill.)

Mather, James E., Muskegon, Mich.: Fresh-water shells from Michigan. Exchange. 41668.

Matschie, Dr. Paul. (See under Königliches Museum für Naturkunde, Berlin, Germany.

Matsumura, Dr. S., Sapporo, Japan: Fifty-nine specimens of parasitic Hymenoptera (41762); through Dr. W. H. Ashmead, 267 specimens of Hymenoptera (42475).

Maxon, W. R., U. S. National Museum: Bat, 40 cryptogams, specimen of *Vespertilio* from Plummers Island (41440, 41466, 41338); 6 plants from the District of Columbia (41323); 2 specimens of *Botrychium* from central New York (42504). (See also under H. D. House.)

MAYER, Mrs. HARRIET H. (See under Smithsonian Institution.)

MAYNARD, G. C., U. S. National Museum: Twenty-three electrical instruments. (Loan.) 8914.

MEADOR, CLINTON W., Corinth, Miss.: Received through Dr. G. P. Merrill. Four flint arrowheads from Cherokee County, N. C. 42146.

MEARNS, Dr. E. A., U. S. Army: Fourteen mammal skins and skulls, birds and mollusks from Forest Grove, Oreg. (41234); 6 birds' eggs, 3 shells and a spruce cone (41250); 96 plants from Oregon, Idaho, and Washington (41258); tree toad from Oregon and a pine cone from Idaho (41358); 7 specimens of unios from Fort Snelling, Minn. (41596); about 75 specimens of land and fresh-water shells, plant, and a bird from the Philippine Islands (41889); 39 birds' skins from the Philippine Islands (41915, 41953); 62 plants, about 60 specimens of land, fresh-water, and marine shells from Mindanao (41962); about 12 specimens of land shells from Camp Overton, Mindanao (42037); about 170 specimens of mollusks, 3 corals, 6 geological specimens, 2 plants, and a bird from Mindanao (42063); 5 plants from the Philippine Islands (42136); ethnological material, mollusks, mammals, birds, birds' nests, insects, echinoderms, corals, plants, and minerals from the Phillippine Islands (42201, 42230); mollusks, mammals, birds, crustaceans, plants, minerals, and ethnological specimens from the Philippine Islands (42403, 42453); Spanish Remington cartridge and a Mauser cartridge (42795).

MEARNS, LOUIS di Z., Circleville, Ohio: Seventy-seven birds' skins, principally from Fort Snelling, Minn. (deposit) (41292); 113 birds' eggs and 5 birds' nests from Fort Snelling (gift) (41312); rocks and fossils from the Yellowstone National Park and Fort Snelling (gift) (41367).

MEEKER, Dr. J. W., Brooklyn, N. Y.: Specimens of *Apanteles congregatus* (Say); belonging to the superfamily Ichneumonidæ and family Braconidæ. 42320.

MELANDER, Prof. A. L. (See under New Mexico Agricultural College.)

MELVILLE, J. C., Brook House, Prestwich, England: Seven species of shells from the Persian Gulf. 41515.

MEMORIAL MUSEUM, Golden Gate Park, San Francisco, Cal.: Received through Mr. F. Gruber, curator. Fifteen birds' skins from California. Exchange. 42366.

MENGEL, Prof. L. W., Reading, Pa.: Eight specimens of Lepidoptera from Greenland and Florida. Exchange. 42675.

MERRIAM, Dr. C. H. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

MERRICK, H. D. New Brighton, Pa. Received through Dr. H. G. Dyar. Eighty specimens of Lepidoptera. 42174.

MERRIHEW, Mrs. M. C. W., Long Beach, Cal.: Specimen of *Chiton* from California and a specimen of *Astarte* from Washington. 42648.

MERRILL, Dr. GEORGE P., U. S. National Museum: Home-made magnifier or burning-glass from Auburn, Me. (41316); rocks from Blue Ridge, southeast of Luray, Va. (41380); specimen of trap rock from Sheepscot River, near Westport, Me. (41386); snake (*Storeria dekayi*) from the Island of Springs, Sheepscot Bay, Maine (41400); specimens of coprolites from Fossil, Wyo. (41616); about 2,000 pounds of jaspery hematite from Ishpeming, Mich. (41637), L. P. X.; about 2,000 pounds of rhodochrosite from Butte, Mont. (41638); specimen of fossil wood from Gallatin County, Mont. (41661), L. P. X.; specimen of Horned toad, *Phrynosoma brevirostre*, from Madison Valley, near Logan, Mont. (41688); muscovite granite from the Great Falls of the Potomac, Maryland (41778); geyser tubes from near Opal, Uinta County, Wyo. (collected for L. P. X.) (41827); large mass of

MERRILL, Dr. GEORGE P.—Continued. leopardite from Charlotte, N. C. (41922); granite from Lilesville, N. C. (41947); specimen of rough granite from Advance, N. C., collected for the Museum by C. F. Massey (41989); rocks, fresh and weathered, from North Carolina, collected by F. B. Laney (42264); 3 specimens of granite from North Carolina (42702); collection of limonite pseudomorphs and specimens illustrating the origin of iron ore, from the Katahdin Iron Works, Piscataquis County, Me. (42905); mica, apatite, and associated minerals from Perkins, near East Templeton, Canada (42906); Caen stone from Christ Church Cathedral, Montreal, Canada (42920). (See also under A. E. Heighway, George Jackson, C. W. Meador, and A. T. Roos.)

MERRILL, Dr. G. P. and William Palmer, U. S. National Museum: Rocks and fossils from Mexico. 42455.

MERRILL, J. F., Orono, Me.: Three specimens of quartz from near Auburn, Me. L. P. X. 41641.

METCALF, A. B., Mesilla Park, N. Mex.: Plant from New Mexico. 42880.

METCALF, Prof. M. M., The Woman's College, Baltimore, Md.: One hundred and thirty specimens of Lepidoptera. Exchange. 42778.

METZ, W. C., Columbus, Ohio: Twenty-five moths. 42342.

MEXICO, City of Mexico: Seven plants from Mexico collected under the direction of Dr. Fernando Altamirano. 41011. (See also under Instituto Medico Nacional.)

MEYER, Dr. A. B. (See under Dresden, Germany: Königliches Zoologisches und Anthropologisches-Ethnographisches Museum.)

MEYER, FRANK N., Orizaba, Mexico: Four plants from Mexico. 42847.

MEYNCKE, O. M., Belfield, Va.: One hundred and seven plants from Virginia (42744; 42799; 42842).

MICHIGAN, University of, Ann Arbor, Mich.: Received through C. C. Adams, curator. Ten birds' skins from Paraguay. 42128.

MICKWITZ, Dr. AUGUST, Ingenieur, Reval, Estland, Russia: Fifty specimens of Cambrian fossils and 250 specimens of Ordovician fossils from England. 41882.

MILLER, Dr. B. F., Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa.: About 42 specimens, partly types of new species, of fossil *Cerion*, *Helicina*, and *Cepolis* from the Bahama Islands (Pleistocene). 42865.

MILLER, Mrs. E. P., Alexandria, Va.: Specimen of Turkey buzzard. 42395.

MILLER, Miss E. R., Cleveland, Ohio: Oak-gall representing the species *Callirhytis corniger* O. S. (41247); 4 species of galls (41489).

MILLER, GERRIT S., jr., U. S. National Museum: Reptiles, mollusks, and plants from Stony Man Mountain, Virginia (41256); mollusks and plants from Luray, Va. (41287); 2 specimens of *Brunus* from near Alexandria, Va. (41402); water-lily obtained in Indiana by Mr. Paul Bartsch (41572); frog (*Chorophilus feriarum*) from Cameron Run, Fairfax County, Va. (41664); specimen of *Pieris mariana* from Virginia (41729); salamanders from Stony Man Mountain, Virginia (42718); 57 plants from New York and Virginia (42748; 42783); plant from Virginia (41846); fresh-water and land shells from Stony Man Mountain, Virginia (42862); 22 plants from Virginia and Texas (42300).

MILLER, Miss VIRGINIA. (See under National Society of the Colonial Dames of America.)

MILLER, W. S., Pagosa Springs, Colo.: Specimen of soap-weed rope. 42220.

MILLS, Mrs. MARY E. (See under Mrs. Catherine A. Carter.)

MILLS, OWEN W., Millberry, Mass.: Soapstone utensils and implements. 42022.

MILNER, H. K., Birmingham, Ala.: Snake (*Osceola elapsoidea*). 41551.

MINNESOTA, University of, Mineapolis, Minn.: Ten specimens of *Lacinaria scariosa*. 41283.

MINOR, F. S., U. S. Mint, New Orleans, La.: Specimen of Stinging caterpillar, the larva of *Empretia stimulea* Clemens. 41576.

MISENHEIMER, M. A., Roseburg, Oreg.: Tree-frog, *Hyla regilla*. 41614.

MISSOURI BOTANICAL GARDEN, St. Louis, Mo.: Mexican plant (42589); plant (42872). Exchange.

MITCHELL, Dr. F. E., Washington Asylum Hospital, Washington, D. C.: Fœtus; brain of a colored woman; skeleton of a negro (41672; 41693) (gift); (purchase). (41904).

MITCHELL, Mr. HENRY, care Tweedy Trading Company, New York City: Skin of an albatross from the coast of Chile. 41544.

MITCHELL, Hon. J. D., Victoria, Tex.: White worm, ant (*Lobopelta septentrionalis*), beetle (*Cryptobium lecontei*), earwig (*Libidura riparia* Pall), specimen of nematode (41613); 2 carapaces of *Callinectes sapidus* from Old Indianola, Tex. (41872); insects and reptiles from near Victoria (42036); 12 specimens of *Planorbis obstricta* Mor., from Texas (42328); snake (*Glauconia dulcis*) and 2 parasitic worms of the genus *Tænia* (42824).

MIYAJIMA, Dr. M., Tokio, Japan: Twenty-six adult and four vials containing early stages of Japanese mosquitoes, representing about 14 species. 42727.

MOHLER, Dr. JOHN R. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

MOOERS, Mrs. F. H., Elizabeth City, N. C.: Carved oak cane made of wood taken from the old U. S. S. *Hartford* (42711); sword used by Gen. Benjamin Mooers of the Continental Army (42712).

MOONEY, JAMES. (See under Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology.)

MOORE, CLARENCE B., Philadelphia, Pa.: Specimen of "Piffer," *Lagocephalus lævigatus*. 41927.

MOORE, J. H., Washington, D. C.: Zinc ore from North Star mine, Crooked Creek, near Harrison, Ark. 41459.

MOREIRA, Prof. Carlos. (See under National Museum of Rio de Janeiro, Zoological station.)

MORGAN, Dr. E. L., Washington, D. C.: White male fœtus. 42611.

MORRILL, Dr. A. D., received through Dr. H. T. Fernald, Hatch Experiment Station, Amherst, Mass. Three cotypes of bees, *Bombus cooleyi* Morrill and 2 of *Psithyrus latitarsus* Morrill. 41424.

MORRILL, A. W. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

MORRIS, E. L., Washington, D. C.: Thirteen plants from Nebraska. Exchange. 42613.

MORRIS, E. W., Marine Barracks, Washington, D. C.: Silver peso minted in the United States for circulation in the Philippine Islands. (Loan.) 8873.

MORRIS, G. E., Waltham, Mass.: Brachiopod crustaceans (42664) 12; specimens of *Asellus* (42737).

MORRISON, Prof. J. H., Luray, Va.: Aphids. 42924.

MORSE, E. V., Lorain, Ohio: Specimens of *Gyroceras* and *Conocardium* from the Corniferous of Sandusky, Ohio. 42491.

MORTENSEN, Prof. TH. (See under Copenhagen, Denmark, Zoological Museum.)

MORTON, ALEXANDER, Curator, Tasmania Museum, Hobart Town, Tasmania: Obsidian "button" from Glenely, Victoria, New South Wales. 41723.

MOSCOW, RUSSIA; MUSEUM OF THE IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY: Five casts of teeth of *Mastodon borsoni*. 41831.

MOSELEY, E. L., Sandusky, Ohio: Thirty-six plants from Ohio (exchange) (41887); 8 plants from Ohio (gift) (42553); bat (*Lasiurus borealis*) with 3 young specimens (exchange) (42871).

MOULTON, Hon. GEORGE H., U. S. consul, Demerara, British Guiana: Thirteen eggs of Hoatzin, *Opisthocomus hoatzin*. (42567; 42669.) Purchase L. P. X.

MOWBRAY, LOUIS, St. George, Bermuda: Specimen of fish (*Scorpæna* sp.), from

MOWBRAY LOUIS—Continued.
Castle Harbor, and 3 specimens of fossil land shells (41907); 12 specimens of *Helix* (*Eupanypta*) *pisana* Müll from Bermuda (42165); 33 specimens of mollusks and 3 specimens of crustaceans from Bermuda (42292).

MULLIKEN, EARLE, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.: Plant from California. 42592.

MUNRO, G. C., Molokai, Sandwich Islands: Plant. 41341.

MURGUIONDO, Señor PRUDENCIO DE, consul-general of Paraguay, Baltimore, Md.: Specimen of phosphate rock from South Carolina, representing the Charleston deposit. 42050.

MURRAY, T. P., president North Carolina Corundum Company, Corundum, N. C.: Corundum and associations of rocks and minerals. 41628.

MUSÉE D'HISTOIRE NATURELLE. (See under Paris, France.)

MUSEUM OF COMPARATIVE ZOOLOGY, Cambridge, Mass.: Received through Dr. Walter Faxon. Five specimens of crabs from the Hawaiian Islands. 42868.

MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS, Boston, Mass.: Received through Mr. M. S. Prichard, director. Plaster casts of Aretine molds. L. P. X. 42371.

MUSEUM OF THE IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY. (See under Moscow, Russia.)

MUSEU PAULISTA. (See under Sao Paulo, Brazil.)

NACK, CHARLES, Bahia, Brazil, South America: Crystals of phlogopite from Bahia. 42098.

NATIONAL MUSEUM OF RIO DE JANEIRO, Zoological section, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, South America: Received through Prof. Carlos Moreira. Four alcoholic specimens (cotypes) of crustaceans from Brazil. 41824.

NATIONAL SOCIETY OF THE COLONIAL DAMES OF AMERICA: Through Miss Virginia Miller. Colonial mold for pewter spoons. (Loan.) 8546.

NATIONAL SOCIETY OF THE DAUGHTERS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION, through Mrs. C. W. Fairbanks, president-general: Six framed photographs and record shield of the society (9279); water-colored sketch of Continental Hall (9395); received through Mrs. J. E. Estey, chairman of Revolutionary relics committee, Brattleboro, Vt., framed facsimile of the agreement of General Lafayette to serve in the Continental Army; framed Martha Washington stamp; cotton patchwork quilt; blue and white patchwork quilt made by the niece of Ethan Allen; 2 blue and white platters from Mrs. Bruce, of Quaker City Chapter, formerly the property of Caleb Cushing; received through Mrs. Fairbanks, 11 Revolutionary relics; also the following publications of the Society: "American Monthly Magazine of the National Society of the D. A. R.;" "Report of the D. A. R. to the Smithsonian Institution;" "Directory of the D. A. R.;" gold souvenir spoon, souvenir porcelain with insignia of the Society, consisting of a large cup and saucer, a small cup and saucer, and a small pitcher; and a framed photograph of three badges conferred by the Society on founders and for special service (9259). (Loan.)

NATTRESS, THOMAS, St. Andrews Manse, Amherstburg, Ontario, Canada: Twenty-one Corniferous fossils from Essex County, Ontario, and 75 Hamilton fossils from Bartletts Mills, Ontario. 41921.

NAVAS, Rev. R. P. L., Colegio del Salvador, Zaragoza, Spain: Twenty-eight south European Neuropteroid insects including an Embiid, 4 specimens of Termitidæ, 2 of *Odonata*, 4 of Myrmeleonidæ, and 17 of Chrysopidæ (42581); 14 Neuropteroid insects (42596); 50 specimens of *Odonata* and 7 of Myrmeleonidæ from Spain (42828). Exchange.

NEEDHAM, Prof. J. G., Lake Forest, Ill.: Eighty-six specimens of dragon-fly nymphs of North America. 41805.

NEHRLING, H., Gotha, Fla. Received through Dr. F. H. Knowlton: Two plants from Florida. 42634.

NELSON, A., Laramie, Wyo.: One thousand one hundred and two plants from Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming. Purchase. 41415.

NELSON, E. W., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Two hundred and one plants from Mexico (41327; 41328; 41330); primitive spinning wheel and dresses of 2 Maya women (41977); eggs of Mexican birds (42154). Purchase. (See also under Department of Agriculture and Mrs. N. M. Brown.)

NEWHALL, W. H., U. S. National Museum: Concretions of ferruginous sandstone. 42716.

NEWMAN, W. O., Meridian, Miss.: Specimen of *Quercus pumila* from Mississippi. 42481.

NEW MEXICO AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, Mesilla Park, N. Mex. Received through Prof. A. M. Melander, Univ. of Chicago: Five types of Mutillidæ, comprising *Mutilla hamata* Melander; *M. heber* Mel.; *M. arebus* Mel.; *M. trita* Mel., and *M. grate* Mel. 41674.

NEWTON, Mrs. CHARLES H., Washington, D. C.: Canary bird. 42350.

NEW YORK BOTANICAL GARDEN, Bronx Park, New York City: Two plants (exchange) (41267); 4 plants (exchange) (41268); 280 specimens of *Pteridophyta* collected in Jamaica by Dr. L. M. Underwood (exchange) (41269); 3 plants (parts of types) from Texas, Louisiana, and Mexico (exchange) (41336); 148 plants from Colorado (gift) (41703); 4 plants from different localities in the United States (exchange) (41886); plant from Mexico (gift) (41913); 144 plants (exchange) (42014); 2 plants from New York and California (gift) (42088); 82 plants from Martinique, Guadeloupe, Florida, and other localities (exchange) (42089); 2 plants (exchange) (42093); plant (exchange) (42187); 245 plants from Colorado (exchange) (42303); 500 plants from Jamaica (exchange) (42554); 2 plants (exchange) (42813); through Dr. N. L. Britton, 4 plants (exchange) (42904).

NICHOLS, F. H., Perkinsville, Vt.: Specimen of asbestos from Weathersfield, Vt. 42700.

NICHOLS, G. E., New Haven, Conn.: One hundred and sixty plants from Jamaica. Purchase. 42286.

NICHOLS, Dr. J. B., Garfield Hospital, Washington, D. C.: Brain of a white American adult male. 41293.

NOGE, E. J. (See under T. T. Lane.)

NORTON, Prof. RICHARD, Rome, Italy: Four casts from reliefs from the Arch of Trajan. Purchase. L. P. X. 42866.

NURSE, Maj. C. G., Thirteenth Bombay Infantry, Quetta, Baluchistan, India: Forty-three species of Indian Ceropalidæ (new to Museum collection) (gift) (41858); 130 species of Hymenoptera from India (exchange) (42496).

NYLANDER, O. O., Newsweden Station, Me.: Seven specimens of amphipods from Caribou stream, Woodland, Aroostook County, Me. (42011); 20 specimens of Helderbergian fossils from Ashland, Me. (42148); supposed meteoric iron (42233).

O'REILLY, Dr. R. M. (See under War Department.

OBERHOLSER, H. C. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

OGDEN, Dr. H. V., Milwaukee, Wis.: Fifteen batrachians. 42123.

OLDROYD, Mrs. T. S., Los Angeles, Cal.: Fifty-four specimens of marine shells from California. (41847; 42152.)

OLDYS, HENRY, Washington, D. C.: Two plants from the District of Columbia. 42926. (See also under Dr. J. E. Benedict.)

ORCUTT, C. R., San Diego, Cal.: Plants from California. (Exchange and gift.) (41298; 41597; 42183; 42753.)

ORD, Maj. JAMES C., U. S. Army, Chevy Chase, Md.: Two buffalo robes. 42860.

ORD, Mrs. J. P., Albany, N. Y.: Glass berry dish presented to Gen. E. O. C. Ord, U. S. Army, by General Diaz, of Mexico, and said to have belonged to Hernando Cortez. Loan. 8948.

Osborn, Prof. H. F., American Museum of Natural History, New York City: Eight casts of feet of fossil horses. Exchange. 41655. (See also under American Museum of Natural History.)

Osborne, J. E., Norwalk, Ohio. Received through Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology. Two iron axes of the pioneer period of the Northwest, probably of French origin (42330); Iroquoian antiquities from Georgian Bay (42494).

Osgood, W. H., Washington, D. C.: Plant from Alaska. 42854. (See also under Department of Agriculture.)

Oslar, E. J., Alcott, Colo.: One hundred and fifty specimens of Lepidoptera (gift) (42309; 42310; 42317; 42368; 42436); 260 specimens of Orthoptera from Arizona and New Mexico (purchase) (42697).

Osmun, A. V., Amherst, Mass.: Specimen of *Equisetum scirpoides* from Connecticut. 42121.

Outes, Felix F., Buenos Aires, Argentina: Aboriginal remains from the province of Catamarca. 42720.

Owen, Virgil W., Los Angeles, Cal.: Twenty-nine moths (42603); 2 specimens of turtle (*Kinosternon*) from Arizona (42921).

Owston, Alan, Yokohama, Japan. Received through Dr. David S. Jordan: Specimen of *Mitsukurina owstoni* from Sagami Bay, Japan (purchase) (42120); 2 reptiles from Bonin Island, Japan (gift) (42639).

Oxford, Museum of the University of, Merton College, Oxford, England. Received through W. F. R. Weldon: Three enlarged models of teeth of an embryonic *Ornithorhynchus*. 42186.

Ozias, J. W., Lawrence, Kans.: Parts of uniforms, documents, cartridges, shells, etc., obtained in the Philippine Islands. 41609.

Ozias, O. O. (See under Computing Scale Company, Dayton, Ohio.)

Pace, Lulu, Temple, Tex.: Eight plants, including *Solidago canadensis scabrius-*

Pace, Lulu—Continued.
cula Porter; *Eryngium leavenworthii* T. and G.; *Euphorbia bicolor* Engelm.; *Andropogon scoparius* Michx.; *Andropogon hallii* Hack., 2 specimens, and *Chrysopogon nutans* (L.) Benth (41595); plant from Texas (42741).

Packard, Mrs. S. A., Brockton, Mass.: Small hand-made cushion. 41549.

Pagliuchi, F. D., Habana, Cuba: Specimen of Pipefish, *Siphostoma louisianæ* (?) from Pablo, Cuba. 41410.

Paine, J. H., Catalina Island, Cal.: Two marine shells. 41432.

Painter, J. H., U. S. National Museum: Four plants (41368); Sphinx-moth from Toluca, Mexico (41929); specimen of *Senecio* from Fairfax County, Va. (42001); 167 plants from Pennsylvania and New Jersey (42789).

Palache, Prof. Charles. (See under Harriman Alaskan Expedition.)

Palmer, G. W., Knik, Cooks Inlet, Alaskan: Grizzly bear, *Ursus horribilis*, from the head of Knik Arm. Purchase. L. P. X. 41563.

Palmer, Joseph, U. S. National Museum: Snake (*Ophibolus rhombomaculatus*). 42750.

Palmer, Dr. T. S., Department of Agriculture: Plaster cast of *Calodontotherium palmeri*, a fossil vertebrate. 42142.

Palmer, William, U. S. National Museum: Three hundred and twenty-eight plants from Newfoundland (41362); frog from St. Johns (41776); 29 specimens of Diptera, 5 specimens of Lepidoptera, and 2 specimens of Coleoptera (42194); 2 specimens of *Succinea*, 26 birds' skins, whale feed, *Rhoda inermis* (Kröyer) from Newfoundland (42226; 42239; 42294); 12 plants from Arizona (42329); reptiles and plants from Mexico (42456; 42472); 41 plants from Missouri (42797); 7 birds' skins from West Mexico (42830); crustaceans and echinoderms from Guaymas, Mexico (42870); 75 specimens of marine shells from La Pas, Lower California (42879).

Palmer, William, and George P. Merrill, U. S. National Museum: Rocks and fossils from Mexico. 42455.

Pans, A. B., Gaffney, S. C.: Two fossil plants from Lafollette, Tenn. 42167.

Paret, Mrs. A. E. B., Sweetwater, Tex.: Two plants from Texas. 41608.

Paris, France, Musée d'Histoire Naturelle: Received through Count Robert du Buysson. Twenty-five specimens of wasps belonging to the family Vespidæ. Exchange. 42499.

Parkhurst, Mrs. Clara, Washington, D. C.: Two cockroaches (*Blatta orientalis* Linnæus) 42840.

Parks, Miss M. A., U. S. National Museum: Fossils, crustaceans, and a piece of coral, bird skin, 45 specimens of land, fresh-water, and marine shells, bat, 5 specimens of Labroid fishes, tooth of a fossil shark, from the Azores. 41561.

Parsons, Miss M. E., San Rafael, Cal.: Two specimens of *Polypodium* from California (41798; 42116).

Partello, Maj. J. M. T., U. S. Army, Presidio, San Francisco, Cal.: Syntomid moth (*Syntomis*). 41366.

Passmore Gem Company, Boston, Mass.: Emerald matrix from North Carolina; ruby matrix from North Carolina, and a paste model of a brilliant (gift) (41473); 11 models showing styles of cutting gems (purchase) (41474).

Patrick, Prof. D. S., Fort Smith, Ark.: Spider (*Ordgarius cornigerus* Hentz). 41657.

Patrick, F. A., Palestine, Tex.: Larva of a Chrysopa-fly. 41281.

Peabody Museum, Boston, Mass.: Received through C. C. Willoughby. Casts of Quirigua Dwarf and Sastanquique sculpture. Purchase. L. P. X. 42489.

Peale, E. W., through Dr. A. C. Peale, U. S. National Museum: Oil portrait of Prof. S. F. B. Morse, by Schussele. 41919.

Pearsall, Richard F., Brooklyn, N. Y.: Received through Department of Agriculture. Four galls and 18 specimens of parasitic Hymenoptera. 41851.

Pearson, Charles H. (See under Chelsea Clock Company.)

Peckham, Prof. G. W., Public Library, Milwaukee, Wis.: Two moths. 42922.

Pellegrin, A. L., Nogales, Ariz.: Nugget of native silver. 42449.

Pelligrini, Wilhelm, Chemnitz, Germany: Cast of fish (Forrelenbarsch). 42890.

Penafiel, Dr. Antonio, Mexico, Mexico: Casts of Mexican antiquities. Purchase. L. P. X. 42584.

Pennsylvania Railroad Company, Pittsburg, Pa.: Received through C. E. McKim, superintendent of telegraph. Four old telegraph insulators, 3 Morse telegraph keys, and a Morse telegraph relay. 41460.

Pepoon, H. L., Chicago, Ill.: Twenty-three specimens of violets. Exchange. 41361.

Perdew, A. G., Cumberland, Md.: Slab of *Arthrophycus harlani* from Wills Creek Gap, near Cumberland. 41942.

Pergande, Theo., Department of Agriculture: Two specimens of dragonflies and three specimens of mayflies from Minneapolis, Minn. 41654.

Perkins, R. C. L., Honolulu, Hawaiian Islands: Received through Department of Agriculture. Four cotypes of *Echthrodelphax fairchildii* Perkins, from Oahu. 41648.

Peters, Maj. George. (See under Smithsonian Institution.)

Peyster, Gen. John Watts de. (See under Smithsonian Institution, and War Department.)

Pfordte, O. F., Rutherford, N. J.: Specimen of chalcedony from Mexico and pectolite from West Paterson, N. J. Exchange. 42061.

Phalen, W. C., U. S. National Museum: Specimens of manganese and iron ores from Crimora and Elkston, Va.; also mastodon bones from Cave Station, Va. 42715. (See also under Frank W. Wood.)

Philippine Islands, Manila, Bureau of Agriculture: Received through U. S. Department of Agriculture. Two thousand four hundred and forty-three plants and specimens of cellular crypto-

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, ETC.—Continued.
gams from the Philippine Islands (41279; 41699; 42140); 917 plants from the Botanical Garden of Java (42090). Exchange.

PHILIPPINE MUSEUM, Manila, P. I.: Received through Hon. Dean C. Worcester. One hundred and ninety-four birds' skins from the Philippine Islands. Exchange. 41856.

PIERCE, FRANK C., Dallas, Tex.: About 100 plants from Europe. 41883.

PILSBRY, Dr. H. A., Academy of Natural Sciences, Philadelphia, Pa.: About 60 specimens of land and fresh-water shells from Mexico (41720); 7 specimens of *Holospira* from Cave Creek, Chiricahua Mountains and Fort Bowie, Ariz. (42661).

PIPER, Prof. C. V., Department of Agriculture: Six hundred and four plants from Washington (41667); received through Department of Agriculture, 54 type specimens of plants principally from Washington, D. C. (41806); 25 specimens of *Decticinæ* (42268); large collection of insects, consisting of 2,930 specimens from Washington (State) (42343); 8 plants from Washington (42390; 42636); 48 insects from Washington and Idaho (42668); 96 plants from Washington (42674); 5 plants from California (42812). (See also under Department of Agriculture; Washington Agricultural College, Pullman, Wash.)

PIPES, S. A., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Three plants from Louisiana. 41574.

PIRET, A., Tournai, Belgium: Three hundred and ninety-four specimens of Lower Carboniferous invertebrates, collected by Mr. Charles Schuchert. Purchase. 41839.

PITTIER, H., San José, Costa Rica: Three hundred and twelve plants from Costa Rica (purchase) (41857; 42279; 42282); 109 plants (purchase) (42281); specimen of *Asplenium* from Costa Rica (gift) (42412).

PLUMMER, FRED. G. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

POCATELLO GOLD AND COPPER MINING COMPANY, Pocatello, Idaho: Specimen of copper ore. 41531.

POHNDORF, A. P., Butte, Mont.: Five specimens of smoky quartz from Montana. 41627.

POLLARD, C. L., U. S. National Museum: Twenty-five plants from Ohio (41382); 44 plants from Plummers Island, collected principally by Messrs. Pollard and Dowell (41446); plant from the District of Columbia (41535); specimen of *Triphora trianthopora* from Plummers Island (41730).

POLLOCK, Mrs. J. S., Tuxedo, Mexico: Barred owl, *Syrnium varium*. 42240.

POLLOCK, Mrs. MARY, Washington, D. C.: Six beetles and an insect from Talklai, Ariz. 41652.

PRACHT, MAX, Durango, Cal.: Rhodochrosite-manganese carbonate in quartz (41918); specimen of topaz in matrix of rhyolite (42190). (See under J. H. Grimes.)

PREBLE, E. A. and A. E., Department of Agriculture: Four specimens of dragon flies (*Odonata*) and 3 of Lepidoptera from Athabasca, Canada. 41659.

PRENTISS, Dr. D. W., Washington, D. C.: Plant from Newfoundland. 42301.

PRESTON, J. W., Baxter, Iowa: Received through Dr. W. L. Ralph. Specimen of Scarlet tanager, *Piranga erythromelas*, in abnormal plumage. 42723.

PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO ANIMALS, SOCIETY OF, Ponce, Porto Rico: Received through the Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution. Twenty-two garouches, garouche handle, metal horse bridles, wadded club, whip handle, and 2 bridles with curbs. 42912.

PREY, Miss MINA, Porto Rico: Received through the Department of Agriculture. One hundred and thirty-seven plants from Porto Rico. 41303.

PRICHARD, M. S. (See under Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, Mass.)

PRINDLE, L. M. (See under Interior Department, U. S. Geological Survey.)

Pringle, C. G., University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.: Seven hundred and seventy plants from Mexico and Cuba (purchase) (41320); 4 living plants from northern Mexico (gift) (41812); 2 plants (gift) (42188); 94 plants from Mexico (purchase) (42231); 480 plants from Mexico (purchase) (42444; 42506); 2 living plants from Mexico (42653).

Pritzel, Dr. E., Botanical Museum, Berlin, Germany: Seven hundred and seventy-three plants from Australia. Purchase. 42285.

Prokes, Joseph N., Jackson, Minn.: Fragments of Indian pottery. 42041.

Public Museum, Milwaukee, Wis.: Two skins of weasels representing the species in summer and winter coats. 42248.

Purpus, C. A., Zacatecas, Mexico, and Col. George Hochderffer, Flagstaff Ariz.: Small collection of fishes from Mexico. 42032.

Purpus, C. A., Zacatecas, Mexico: Insects from Mexico (part of Acc. 42032) (gift); 33 plants from Mexico (purchase) (42184); received through T. S. Brandegee, 30 plants from Mexico (gift) (42679); 322 plants from Mexico (purchase) (42693).

Purpus, J. A., Darmstadt, Germany: Two specimens of *Cotyledon purpusi* from Mexico. 41603.

Pusey, Mrs. M. J., Callao, Peru: Six hundred and eight specimens of insects from Peru, comprising 534 specimens of Lepidoptera and 74 other insects. 41615.

Putnam, Hon. Herbert. (See under Congress, Library of.)

Putnam, W. B., Salt Lake City, Utah: Eight specimens of cave calcite and aragonite from Utah. 41629.

Quatrefage, Camille, Coney Island, N. Y.: Silver coin of Louis XV, dated 1757. Purchase. 41385.

Race, Frank L. (See under Larabola Mining and Development Company, Chicago, Ill.)

Ralph, Dr. W. L., U. S. National Museum: Eleven mammals from New York (41695); 2 specimens of deer from the Adirondack Mountains (41774); 2 specimens of *Odocoileus virginianus* from New York (41912); 231 birds' eggs from North America (42040). (See also under J. W. Preston.)

Ramirez, Dr. J., Instituto Medico Nacional, City of Mexico, Mexico: Part of type of a plant from Mexico. 41326.

Ramsey, C. E., Riverside, Cal.: Telescope cigar holder. 41696.

Randle, Richmond, Memphis, Tenn.: Water bug, *Corixa burmeisteri* Fieb. 41850.

Rapp, Severin, Sanford, Fla.: Three plants from Florida. 41570.

Rathbun, Miss M. J., U. S. National Museum: Specimen of *Hyalæa cumingi* Desh., from the Indian Ocean. 42571. (See also under Dr. J. G. deMan.)

Ravenel, W. DeC., U. S. National Museum: Two specimens of deer (*Odocoilus virginianus*). 42078.

Read, Prof. T. T., University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyo.: Ten specimens of chalcedony. Exchange. 42048.

Reed, Dr. S. L., Wilsonville, Ky.: Specimen of Horn-tailed saw-fly, *Tremex columba* L. 41581.

Reed, Thomas T. (See under Adelaide, Australia.)

Reeder, J. T., Calumet, Mich.: Ten specimens of fungi (gift) (42198); 22 specimens of copper and associations (purchase) L. P. X. (42199); specimens of powellite and whitneyite (gift) (42684). (See also under Tamarack Mining Company.)

Reid, J. L. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

Reid, William, Tucson, Ariz.: Sample of volcanic dust. 42124.

Remenkampf, Frau von, Borkholm Schloss, Station Tamsal, Baltioch Eisenbahn, Russia: Thirty specimens of fossils from the Borkholm formation. 42134.

Reverchon, J., Dallas, Tex.: Twenty-three plants from Texas. (41391; 41954; 42087.)

REYNOLDS, Dr. E. R., U. S. Pension Office, Washington, D. C.: Eight negatives of skulls. 42278.

RHEES, W. J., Smithsonian Institution: Records of underground temperatures and artesian wells. 42578.

RICE, B. W., Boise, Idaho: Specimen of hyalite (42893); plant from Idaho (42897).

RICE, D. L., Washington, D. C.: Specimen of garnet. 42667.

RICHARDSON, Mrs. C. W., Washington, D. C.: Painted elk-skin robe from the Shoshones Wind River Reservation at Fort Washakie, Wyo. 42470.

RICKER, P. L., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of *Myxomycetes* from Maryland. 41591.

RIKER, C. B., New York City: Two moths and 3 cocoons from Mexico. 42522.

RILEY, J. H., Falls Church, Va.: Four bats and 15 birds' skins from the Bahamas (41601); squirrel (*Sciurus hudsonicus loquax*) (41892); snake (*Natrix leberis*) from Falls Church, Va. (42474; set of 4 eggs of American woodcock, *Philohela minor* (42550). (See also under Bahama Expedition.

RIS, B. (See under Hungerford Brass and Copper Company.)

RIVERS, Dr. J. J., received through Dr. Ralph Arnold, Oceanpark, Cal.: Specimen of California Pliocene bryozoan. 42145.

RIVES, Col. W., Washington, D. C.: Deringer rifle. (Loan.) 9509.

ROBBINS, G. C., Sandon, British Columbia: Forty-eight insects from British Columbia. 41600.

ROBERTS, Hon. G. E., Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.: Bronze mint medal of the late President McKinley. 42510.

ROBINSON, Capt. WIRT, U. S. Army, Santiago, Cuba, and Fort Totten, N. Y.: Bats (42178); 132 specimens of insects, principally Lepidoptera (42202); nest of *Sporadinus riccordi* and 4 skins of *Polioptila lembeyi* (42451).

ROCKHILL, Hon. W. W., Director, Bureau of American Republics, Washington, D. C.: Japanese musical instrument (exchange) (42182); photographs of native workmen at Pekin (gift) (42324); oriental antiquities, including 2 Chinese lamps, a pair of shoes, leather belt, and 2 wooden canteens of Grecian make (gift) (42380).

RODENDAHL, C. O., Minneapolis, Minn.: Plant from Minnesota. 41555.

ROLLE, H., Berlin, Germany: Four hundred and nineteen specimens of oriental and other exotic land shells. Purchase. 42928.

ROMINGER, Prof. CARL, Ann Arbor, Mich.: Large collection of corals, crinoids, and trilobites from the Paleozoic formation of the Mississippi Valley (Upper Silurian, Devonian, and Carboniferous) (purchase) (L. P. X.) (41332); a large collection of bryozoans and mollusks representing the larger part of the Paleozoic formations of the Mississippi Valley (Upper Silurian, Devonian, and Carboniferous) (purchase) (41538); fossils constituting the remainder of this collection (42170).

ROONEY, Miss B. M., St. Johnsbury, Vt.: Twenty species of Ophioglassaceæ from Vermont. Exchange. 42505.

ROOS, A. T., Deadwood, S. Dak.: Specimen of lepidolite from Ingersoll Group of Claims, Harvey Peak Tin Company, South Dakota, collected by Dr. George P. Merrill. 41997.

ROOSEVELT, Hon. THEODORE, President of the United States: Buckskin hunting shirt made for the President by the Delaware Indians (41797); ethnological objects from the Philippine Islands (42858); pair of Willow Ptarmigans, *Lagopus lagopus*, from the vicinity of Valdez, Alaska (42649); 3 ceremonial objects presented by the Zuñi Indians, through the Bureau of American Ethnology (42217); collection of native-made guns, pistols, and bolos from the Philippine Islands (42351).

ROSE, Dr. J. N., U. S. National Museum: Plants from Mexico (41508, 41509, 41533, 41573, 41583, 41594, 41639, 41692, 41742,

ROSE, Dr. J. N.—Continued.
41752,41779); 3,863 plants from Mexico and about 100 specimens of shells representing the species *Valvata sincera* Say from Mexico (41841); 3 Mexican baskets (42111).

ROSELL, Dr. ANTONIO, San Juan, Porto Rico: Three specimens of fossils from the Oligocene of Yauco, Porto Rico. 42018.

ROSENBERG, W. F. H., London, England: Two specimens of *Lepus*, 2 specimens of *Xerus*, 2 of *Hyrax*, and a spotted hyena (41643); 92 specimens of Hymenoptera (41770); pair of petrels, *Oceanodroma castro* from the Madeiras (41793); bat (*Sphæronycteris*) (42130); rat (*Zygodontomys cherriei*) (42349); 18 birds' skins from Chiriqui, also 3 mammals (42398); 1,861 specimens of Hymenoptera and Hemiptera from South America, Queensland, and Ceylon (42699). Purchase.

ROSENDAHL, C. O., Minneapolis, Minn.: Plant from Canada. 41285.

ROTH, Dr., Lands Department, Brisbane, Queensland: Collection of artifacts to illustrate stone-working among the ancient Tasmanians of Blackman Bay. The series include chert nuclei or cores, various forms of flakes struck from these, and roughly worked blades to be used later as special tools. 42352.

ROTHGEB, D. A., Leaksville, Va.: Beetle (*Dynastes tityus* Linnæus). 42923.

ROYAL BOTANIC GARDEN. (See under Sibpur, Calcutta, India.)

ROYAL BOTANIC GARDENS. (See under Kew, London, England.)

ROYAL GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY OF AUSTRALASIA. (See under Adelaide, Australia.)

RUDDOCK, G. T., San Francisco, Cal.: Plant from Oregon. 41334.

RUFFIN, J. N. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

RUHE, LOUIS, New York City: Python representing the species *Preticulatus* from the East Indies. Purchase. L. P. X. 41363.

RUMMEL, Mrs. FRANZ, Washington, D. C.: Gilt vest buttons, grande cordon, and ribbons of decoration which belonged to the late Prof. S. F. B. Morse. (Loan.) 9217.

RUTH, ALBERT, Knoxville, Tenn.: Plant from Texas. 41748.

RUTTER, CLOUDSLEY. (See under Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Fisheries.)

ST. MARY'S ACADEMY, Monroe, Mich.: Received through Sister Mary Catherine. Two corals (41496); crayfish, reptile, and mollusks (41501).

ST. PETERSBURG, RUSSIA, IMPERIAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES: Received through Prof. Frederic von Schmidt. One hundred and thirteen specimens of selected fossils from the Reval Provincial Museum. 42393.

SANDERS, J. G., Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.: Ten species of scale insects from Ohio, including cotypes of 2 species described by donor. 42874.

SANDERSON, Prof. E. DWIGHT, State Entomologist, Agricultural and Mechanical College, College Station, Tex.: Lizard from Comanche County, collected by R. T. Jaynes (41431); 5 specimens of Lepidoptera (42376).

SANSON, N. B., curator, Rocky Mount Park Museum, Banff, Alta, British Columbia: Plant from Canada (41582) 2 specimens of Hymenoptera, 3 of Odonata and a horse-fly (41651); 2 specimens of wasp (*Vespa maculata* L.), and a beetle (*Dytiscus marginicollis* Leconte) (41852).

SÃO PAULO, BRAZIL, MUSEUM PAULISTA: Received through Dr. H. von Ihering, director. Three bats. 42814.

SARLE, C. J., Rochester, N. Y.: Specimens of Rochester shales. 41565.

SAVERY, J. C., Cable, Mont.: Specimen of native gold in pyrrhotite from Cable mine. Deposit. 41631.

SCHAEFFER, C., Brooklyn, N. Y.: Nine specimens of Orthoptera. 42360.

SCHALLER, W. T., U. S. Geological Survey, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of palacheite from California (41712); specimen of esmeraldaite from Esmeralda County, Nevada (42007).

SCHAUS, WILLIAM, Twickenham, England: One hundred and fifty-three miscellaneous insects from Jamaica (41972); 328 specimens of Lepidoptera from Cuba (42359).

SCHEFFER, THEODORE, Agricultural College, Manhattan, Kans.: Twelve spiders, cotypes of species described by the donor. 42695.

SCHLÜTER, WILHELM, Halle a Salle, Germany: Eighty-three mammals from the Old World (41294); monkey (*Presbytes cephalopterus*) (42114); 12 skins of Ruff (*Machetes pugnax*) (42758). Purchase.

SCHMID, E. S., Washington, D. C.: Three brains of rabbits (41605); 2 guinea pigs, a Belgian hare, and a Cuban parrot (41724); raccoon (41740); 3 specimens of *Sciuropterus volans* (41750); snake (*Coluber guttatus*) from Florida (41870); skull of a fox terrier (42051); head of a rabbit (42073); 3 fox squirrels (42096); python (42255); crab (*Gecarcinus*) (42686).

SCHMIDT, Prof. FREDERICK VON. (See under St. Petersburg, Russia, Imperial Academy of Sciences.)

SCHNECK, J., Mount Carmel, Ill.: Jumping-mouse. 42827.

SCHÖNLAND, Dr. S. (See under Grahamstown, South Africa, Albany Museum.)

SCHREINER, JACOB, St. Petersburg, Russia: Twenty-four specimens of parasitic Hymenoptera (42139); 23 species of parasitic Hymenoptera (42318).

SCHUCHERT, CHARLES, U. S. National Museum: About 500 specimens of Cretaceous fossils, principally bryozoans from Mastricht, Holland (41818); 2 specimens of trachyte from Drachenfels, Germany, and one specimen of bitumen from Visé, Belgium (41826); about 300 specimens of Silurian and Lower Devonic fossils collected in Bohemia (41842); specimens of volcanic rocks from the Provinces of Eifel and Nassau, Germany (41875); about 1,000 specimens of Silurian fossils collected on the island of Gotland, Sweden (42002); about 1,000 specimens of Lower Silurian fossils collected at various places in Estland, Russia (42392); 615 specimens of Silurian fossils[a] (42701). (See also under A. Piret.)

SCHUCHERT, CHARLES—Continued.

SCHUETTE, J. H., Green Bay, Wis.: Two plants from Wisconsin. 41271.

SCHWARZ, Prof. E. A., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: One hundred and forty-one specimens of Hemiptera from Cuba (41345); 300 specimens of Lepidoptera, 6,000 specimens of Coleoptera from Victoria and Goliad, Tex. (41817). (See also under Department of Agriculture, and Washington Biologists Field Club.)

SCOTT, Mrs. M. N., Honolulu, Hawaiian Islands: Specimens of hair; bamboo-Ohe; hat and basket material; Oloma (fiber); mat pandanes and anklet shells (42164); cocoanut bowl from the Hawaiian Islands (42361); specimens of native Hawaiian work consisting of 2 straw hats, a bone fishhook, and a wooden bowl (42383).

SCUDDER, S. H. (See under Interior Department, U. S. Geological Survey.)

SCURLOCK, Dr. H. C., Washington, D. C.: Skeletons of 2 negroes (42289); 2 fœtus (42379); brain of an adult negro (42416); fœtus (42430); skeletons of 2 full-blood negroes (42528).

SEDGWICK MUSEUM. (See under Cambridge, England.)

SEEGAR, G. E., U. S. National Museum: Belgian hare. 41568.

SELDEN, CHARLES, Baltimore, Md.: Telegraphic key manufactured by W. Shock in 1864. 41421.

SELER, Dr. EDWARD. (See under Berlin, Germany, Königliches Museum für Volkerkunde.)

SEMPERS, J. FORD, Aiken, Md.: Specimen of *Ionactis linearifolia*. 41706.

SETON, ERNEST THOMPSON, Cos Cob, Conn.: Skin and skull of a White-tailed fawn from Manitoba. 42760.

[a] Purchase.

SETON-KARR, H. W., Cairo, Egypt: Two hundred and seventy-eight stone implements from the Fayum district, Egypt. 42189.

SHAW, GEORGE R., Bangor, Mass.: Eight specimens of pines from the Arnold Arboretum, Jamaica Plain, Mass. Exchange. 42171.

SHAW, Hon. L. M. (See under Treasury Department.)

SHELDON, Mrs. C. A., Washington, D. C.: Butterfly and 3 beetles from western China and 3 North American insects. 42542.

SHELDON, E. P., Portland, Oreg.: Three plants from Oregon. 41383. (See also under Department of Agriculture.)

SHERMAN, F. G. (See under Central Railroad Company of New Jersey.)

SHERWOOD, W. L., New York City: Two abnormal specimens of tadpole. 42414.

SHORT, J. W., Liberty, Ind.: Specimen of *Myxomycetes* from Indiana. 41401.

SHULL, G. H., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.: Two plants from Indiana. 41315.

SIAS, A. W., Harbor View, Fla.: Received through Department of Agriculture. Plant from Florida. 41715.

SIBPUR, CALCUTTA, INDIA; ROYAL BOTANIC GARDEN: One hundred and forty-three plants from India. Exchange. 41537.

SICKLES, F. M., Los Angeles, Cal.: Specimen of pink spodumene. 41436.

SIMMONS, GEORGE, Manvel, Cal.: Stone implements, pottery, and pieces of turquoise, etc. 41701.

SIMMS, Mrs. THOMAS, Altamonte Springs, Fla.: Received through Department of Agriculture. Plant from Florida. 42404.

SIMPSON, C. B., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Thirteen larval cases of *Limnephilus indivisus* Walk., from Ithaca, N. Y. 41653.

SINGER, GEORGE P., Lockhaven, Pa.: Received through Department of Agriculture. Plant from Pennsylvania. 42746.

SKUES, R. A., Gunnison, Colo.: Moth (*Arachnia atra* N. & D.) 42067.

SLATER, W. M., president American Rutile Company, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of ferrotitanium. 42072. (See also under American Rutile Company.)

SLOAN, C. G., & Co., Washington, D. C.: Two antique lamps and an antique salt box. Purchase. 42017.

SLOSSON, Mrs. A. T., New York City: Eight specimens of Hymenoptera from Biscayne Bay, Florida (41943); moth from Florida belonging to a new genus and species (42703).

SMITH, EUGENE A., University, Ala.: Specimens of turquoise. 41993.

SMITH, H. H., Pittsburg, Pa.: One hundred and two plants from South America. Purchase. 41317.

SMITH, Dr. HUGH M., Bureau of Fisheries, Washington, D. C.: Collection of reptiles and batrachians from Japan (gift) (41419); miscellaneous invertebrates, bats, and mollusks from various localities in Japan (gift) (41439); Iroquois rattle, made from a snapping turtle (exchange) (42889); Japanese teeth-blacking outfit (loan) (9508.) (See also under Dr. K. Kishinouyé.)

SMITH, Capt. JOHN DONNELL, Baltimore, Md.: Plants from Guatemala, one of them collected by Mr. H. von Turckheim (41935; 42232.)

SMITH, J. G., Honolulu, Hawaiian Islands: Plant from Honolulu. 42745.

SMITH, Prof. J. P., Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal.: Hypotype of *Gastrioceras globulosum*, figured in Monograph No. 42 of the U. S. Geological Survey. 41923.

SMITH, MILTON W., Portland, Oreg.: Three specimens of *Macrorhampus scolopaceus* and *Gallinago delicata*. 42293.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION, Mr. S. P. Langley, Secretary: Twenty-three flint implements from the Temple of Osiris, Abydos, and 2 gaming dice from Behnesa. 41749. Presented by the Egypt Exploration Fund, London, England, through Mr. James Cotton, secretary.

An obsolete barometer, No. 358. 42137.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION—Continued.

Life-sized relief in plaster of Prof. Alpheus Hyatt. 42337. Presented by Mrs. Harriet Hyatt Mayer.

Eleven photographs showing a new method of making casts. 42604. Presented by Maj. George A. Peters, Toronto, Canada, through Mr. O. C. Cullen.

Shells and musket balls from the battlefield of Gettysburg; Chinese harikari dagger, bone-handled "couteau du chasse," Siamese double dagger, single-handle East India dagger, Malay bolong, Abyssinian flissa, U. S. artillery sword of Roman pattern, horn, 2 flintlock pistols in a wooden case, 2 horse pistols in a wooden case, 2 Satsuma vases on stands, Russian icon, single-barrel sporting gun, 3-inch Parrott solid shell, and a Dahlgren explosive shell; eight historical specimens (42616; 42730; 43875). Presented by Gen. John Watts de Payster, Tivoli, N. Y.

Fourteen photographs of the mammoth expedition of Beresofka River. 42802.

Bronze medal struck in commemoration of the dedication of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York. 42811. Presented by the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York.

Transferred from the Bureau of American Ethnology, Mr. W. H. Holmes, chief: Bronze medal awarded to the Bureau of American Ethnology by the Louisville Exposition, in 1883; bronze medal with aluminum case awarded to the Bureau by the World's Columbian Exposition, 1893, and a gold medal awarded by the Cotton States and International Exposition, Atlanta, in 1895 (41355); material transferred from the Bureau, consisting of specimens collected by Prof. W J McGee in Mexico and also among the Papago and Seri Indians; (41397); pestle of schistose stone collected by Prof. G. K. Gilbert near Redstone, Tulare County, Cal. (41726); ethnological objects from various localities (41802); human skeleton and basket, basket, tule mat, and remains of a net from a cave near Bakersfield, obtained by purchase from James W. Stockton, Bakersfield, Cal.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION—Continued.

(41978); basket and mat of the Haida Indians with figures of Killer whale, collected by John R. Swanton (42216); ethnological material collected among the American Indians by James Mooney (42431); collection of ethnological objects from the northern coast collected by J. R. Swanton (42513); Zuñi blanket, specimen of Tekuna, ceremonial sash, wooden paddle, 2 Zuñi masks, Zuñi shirt, pair of amulets, and Hopi sash (42514); archeological specimens, obtained through Mr. E. H. Jacobs, Bentonville, Ark. (42531); bronze medal awarded to the Bureau of American Ethnology by the Universal Exposition held in Paris in 1889 (42551); 6 ethnological objects collected by John R. Swanton (42610); about 550 specimens illustrating Dr. J. Walter Fewkes's researches in the Caribbean region (42916). (See also under Mr. Bunker; I. C. Harris; S. E. Jackson; J. E. Osborne; Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, Society of, Ponce, Porto Rico; William N. Zoller.)

Transferred from the National Zoological Park, Dr. Frank Baker, superintendent: Spice finch (41238); Valley partridge, *Callipepla californica vallicola* (41239); 3 specimens of deer (*Cariacus macrotis*), and a Brush-tailed rock kangaroo, *Petrogale penicillata* (41240); brain of an alligator (41589); Mud hen, *Gallinule;* finch (*Sporæginthus flavidiventris*); coyote (*Canis frustros*); Native Australian cat, *Dasyurus;* Java sparrow and bittern (41676); bear (*Ursus japonicus*); Arctic fox, *Vulpes logopus;* bear (*Ursus americanus*); deer (*Cariacus*) (41677); cat (*Felis eyra*); ocelot (*Felis pardalis*); 2 specimens of Jaguar, *Felis onca;* coyote (*Canis frustror*) and Wallaby, *Onychogale frenata* (41678); duck (*Dendronessa galericulata*); coot (*Fulica americana*); Wood duck (*Aix sponsa*) (41679); alligator (*Alligator mississippiensis*) (41680); Echidna, *Echidna aculeata* (41681); lory, Java sparrow, parrakeet, fish-hawk, grass parrakeet, flamingo (*Phœnicopterus antiquorum*) (41682); 2 specimens of Tree duck, *Dendrocyg-*

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION—Continued.

na arctuata, and a Brown pelican, *Pelecanus fuscus* (41683); baboon (*Papio hamadryas*), Great horned owl, *Bubo virginianus*, specimen of *Ocyphaps lophotes*, American magpie, *Pica pica hudsonica*, pine snake, *Pityophis melanoleucus*, and an European swan, *Cygnus gibbus* (41684); Grass parrakeet; Louisiana heron, *Ardea tricolor ruficollis;* Wanga wanga pigeon, *Lencosarcia picata*, 3 specimens; lory, 2 specimens of *Lencosarcia picata* (41685); specimen of *Echidna aculeata* (41686); Dingo, *Canis dingo;* American bison, *Bison americanus;* bear (*Ursus americanus*) (41687); specimen of Tennessee warbler, *Helminthophila peregrina* (41702), pigeon (*Geopelia placida*), and a specimen of *Trichoglossus versicolor* (41744); cockatoo (*Cacatua roseicapilla*); 2 specimens of coot (*Fulica americana*); parrot (*Amazona leucocephala*); Flamingo, *Phœnicopterus ruber*, Snowy owl, *Nyctea nyctea* (41983); Mule deer, *Cariacus macrotis;* deer (*Cervus philippinus*); armadillo (*Tatusia novemcincta*); wallaby (2 specimens) and a sloth (*Cholœpus didactylus*) (41984); opossum (*Phalangista fuliginosa*); monkey (*Cebus*); Hutia, *Capromys pilorides;* skull of seal (*Phoca vitulina*) and Echidna, *Echidna aculeata* (41985); tortoise (*Testudo tabulata*) (41986); Gallinule; Wild boar, *Sus scrofa;* swan (*Olor columbianus*); hawk (*Accipiter cooperi*); coot (*Fulica americana*) and Wood duck, *Aix sponsa* (41987); Chuckawalla (41988); 5 birds (42761); Cayman (42762); 2 specimens of Great blue heron, *Ardea herodias* (42763); Swift Fox, *Vulpes velox* (42764); Grizzly bear, *Ursus horribilis* (42765); Cinnamon bear, *Ursus americanus;* American buffalo, *Bison americanus* (42766); moose (*Alces americanus*) (42771); tortoise, snake and an ocelot (42767); owl (*Bubo virginianus*); owl (*Nyctea nyctea*); White stork, *Ciconia alba;* stork (*Leptoptilus crumeniferus*); egret, (*Ardea candidissima*); crane (*Anthropoidea virgo*) (42768); Cassowary, *Casuarius australis;* Water turkey,

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION—Continued.

Anhinga anhinga; Piping crow, *Gymnorhina tibicen;* pigeon; parrakeet (*Melosittacus undulatus*); cockatoo (*Cacatua roseicapilla*) (42769); 6 birds (42770); moose (42771); moose (*Alces americanus*); Black wolf, *Canis lupis griseo-albus;* ocelot (*Felis pardalis*); Australian native cat (*Dasyurus*) and raccoon (*Procyon cancrivorus*) (42772); Grass parrakeet, *Melopsittacus undulatus* (42773); Gray wolf, yellow baboon, Java sparrow, Golden eagle and Harbor seal (42774); Amazon (*Amazona levaillanti*) (42779); Sun bear, *Ursus malayanus* (42780); Sparrow hawk, *Falco sparverius*, and a Purple heron, *Ardea purpurea* (42832); Purple heron (42833).

SNYDER, J. O. (See under Leland Stanford Junior University.)

SOOCHOW UNIVERSITY, Soochow, China: Collection of insects. 41236.

SOUNNER, H., Chicago, Ill.: Myriapod representing the species *Cermatia forceps*. 41505.

SOUTH SIDE SPORTSMEN'S CLUB, Oakdale, Long Island: Received through J. O. Clift, superintendent. Large German brown trout raised in the South Side Club Hatchery. 42806.

SOWERBY AND FULTON, Royal Botanical Gardens, Kew, England: Specimen of *Voluta pulchra* Sow. Purchase. 41938.

SPALDING, THOMAS, Stockton, Utah: Six specimens of *Satyrus paulus*. 42271.

SPONVILLE, H. J., director of mines at Demidoff, St. Petersburg, Russia: Rocks from Demidoff mines, province of Perm, Russia. 42160.

SPRINGER, Rev. RUTER W., U. S. Army, Fort Washington, Md.: Large shell representing the species *Cucullæa gigantea* from the Eocene of Fort Washington. 42707.

STANEART, C. W., Forest Hill, La.: Beetle (*Dynastes tityus* L.). 41235.

STANTON, Dr. T. W., U. S. Geological Survey: Seven "Medicine sticks" found in Montana. 41970. (See also under A. W. Jones.)

STANTON, Rev. W. A., Manila, Philippine Islands: Lepidoptera (41671); insects (41958; 42068); 263 specimens of insects (42208; 42558); 19 vials of Hymenoptera (42682); 6 specimens of an *Aleyrodes* and 5 specimens of hymenopterous parasites (42738).

STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, Fort Collins, Colo.: Received through S. A. Johnson. Leeches and *Apus*. 41968.

STATE COLLEGE, Bozeman, Mont.: Received through Prof. F. W. Traphagen. Minerals and ores. Exchange. 41751.

STATE DEPARTMENT. (See under Hon. H. R. Dietrich.)

STEARNS, Dr. C. H., U. S. Army, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of sponge (*Euplectella*) 41370.

STEARNS, Dr. R. E. C., Los Angeles, Cal.: Two hundred and fifty shells representing the species *Helix aspersa* Müll from California (41425); about 125 specimens of *Paphia* from California (41448); about 2,500 specimens of marine shells from California (41761); 8 shells representing the species *Saxidomus nuttallii* from California (41890); 8 specimens of *Pœcilozonites* from Bermuda, collected by Mr. A. J. Edwards (42038); 325 specimens of *Crepidula onyx* variety *rugosa* Nutt., from San Pedro, Cal. (42071); 20 specimens of *Lasea rubra* Mort., from Santa Barbara, Cal. (42433).

STEELE, E. S., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Five specimens of *Sedum* from West Virginia. 41542.

STEELE, Mrs. GRACE A. K., Washington, D. C.: Three hundred and twenty-five plants from Virginia. Purchase. 42357.

STEJNEGER, Dr. LEONHARD. (See under J. G. Crawford.)

STEJNEGER, Miss THORA, Bergen, Norway: Fifteen mammals and 42 reptiles. Purchase. 41558.

STEPHENS, F. (See under Department of Agriculture.)

STEPHENS, Miss KATE, San Diego, Cal.: One hundred specimens of land and fresh-water shells from California. 42752.

STERKI, Dr. V., New Philadelphia, Ohio: Four cotypes of *Planorbis rebellus* Sterki. 42878.

STEVENSON, Mrs. M. C., Bureau of American Ethnology, Washington, D. C.: Nine Zuñi and Navaho blankets. Purchase. L. P. X. 41372.

STEWART, A. H., Washington, D. C.: Outfit of a Bagobo family from Davao, Philippine Islands. Purchase. 42856.

STILWELL, L. W., Deadwood, S. Dak.: Rocks and minerals from various localities. Purchase. L. P. X. 42015.

STIMPSON, C. A. (See under J. H. Bunnell & Co.; Manhattan Electrical Supply Company; Foote, Pierson & Co.)

STOCKTON, J. W. (See under Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology.)

STOKES, SUSAN, Salt Lake City, Utah: Three hundred plants from Utah and Nevada. Purchase. 42141.

STONE, Miss ELLEN A., Washington, D.C.: French plaster medallion of Lafayette. Loan. 9103.

STROH, JACOB G., Waterloo, Ontario, Canada: Flint arrowhead. 42545.

STUBBLEFIELD, Mrs. A. W., Cumberland, Md.: Twenty-four specimens of fossils from the Oriskany and Hamilton formations of Pendleton County, W. Va. (41863); specimen of *Halysites* and 4 trilobites from Pendleton County (42042).

STUDDS, GRANVILLE, Alexandria, Va.: Three snakes from Fairfax County, Va. 41963.

STURTZ, HERR B., Bonn, Germany: Twenty-four specimens of fossil starfishes, crinoids, and crabs. Purchase. L. P. X. 41837.

SUBIÑA, Señor ARTURO, Ponce, P. R.: Received through Dr. J. Walter Fewkes. A Spanish coin. 42732.

SUTER, HENRY, Auckland, New Zealand: One hundred and eighty-seven specimens of land, fresh-water and marine shells from Auckland. 42434.

SWAN, Miss ETHELYN, Dallas City, Pa.: Three specimens of *Gordius*. 41241.

SWANTON, J. R. (See under Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology.)

SWETLAND, Dr. B. S., Brocton, N. Y.: Four goniatites and two specimens of *Orthoceras*. 42586.

SWIFT & Co., Kansas City, Kans.: Received through R. H. Frisby, superintendent. Tooth of *Mastodon americanus*. 42855.

SWIFT, F. W., Alden, N. Y.: Six specimens of bryozoans and corals from the Hamilton formation of Alden (gift) (41231); half of a ceremonial or banner-stone (loan) (8540).

TABLER, Miss ELIZABETH, U. S. National Museum: Spider (*Epeira insularis*, Hentz), from Buckeystown, Md. 41598.

TALBERT, FRANK, Soldiers' Home, Richmond, Va.: Specimens of Psyllid galls. 41578.

TAMARACK MINING COMPANY, Calumet, Mich.: Received through John T. Reeder. Specimens of whitneyite and chalcocite. 42321.

TAMMEN, H. H., Denver, Colo.: Ten specimens of minerals. Purchase. L. P. X. 41632.

TASSIN, WIRT, U. S. National Museum: Four mother-of-pearl cat's eyes from China. 41934.

TAYLOR, EFFIE P., Thomasville, Ga.: Received through Dr. William Trelease. Plant from Georgia. 42900.

TAYLOR, Rev. G. W., Wellington, British Columbia: Two hundred and seventy-nine specimens of Lepidoptera (gift) (41529); 24 specimens of Geometrid moths from British Columbia (exchange) (42431).

TERRES, Hon. JOHN B., U. S. vice-consul, Port au Prince, Haiti: Petrified oysters from mountains between Haiti and Santo Domingo, at a height of 1,100 feet; also land shells found in the same mountains. 42523.

TERRY, WILLIAM A., Bristol, Conn.: Three specimens of diatoms. 42215.

THOMAS, OLDFIELD, British Museum (Natural History), London, England: Two skeletons of mammals (41559); 3 mice representing the species *Evotomys shomerensis*, from Wales (42374); 13 mammals (42402).

THOMPSON, Miss F. L., Washington, D. C.: Patch-work bed quilt (loan). 9312.

THOMPSON, Dr. J. C., U. S. Navy, Bremerton, Wash.: Fishes collected off the coast of New England (41468); fishes from Santa Rosa, Cal. (41649); 2 specimens of Pipefish, *Siphostoma albirostris*, from the Dry Tortugas, Florida (41843); specimen of *Peromyscus*, fishes and a hermit crab (42016); Coleoptera (42019).

THOMPSON, Dr. J. FORD, Washington, D. C.: Brain of a white child. 42465.

THORWORTH, Miss ESTELLA, U. S. National Museum: Specimen of *Rosa bracteata* from Virginia. 41556.

THUROW, F. W., Harvester, Tex.: Thirty-five plants from Texas. 41936.

TINDALL, Dr. D. W., Taylor, Mo.: Specimen of "hard-tack" used in the U. S. Army during the civil war (1861–1865). 41783.

TITUS, E. S. G., Department of Agriculture: Received through Dr. L. O. Howard. Two hundred specimens of Lepidoptera from Fort Collins, Colo. (41546); specimen of stone-fly from Lawrence, Kans. (41804).

TONK, WILLIAM, & BRO., New York City: Two musical instruments, serenatta and solophone. 41243.

TOPPING, D. LE ROY, Manila, P. I.: Seventeen specimens of plants from the Philippine Islands. 41409.

TORRES, JOSE P., Agana, Guam: Plant from Guam. 41306.

TOWNSEND-BARBER TAXIDERMY AND ZOOLOGICAL COMPANY, El Paso, Tex. Imperial woodpecker, *Campephilus imperialis*, from Mexico. Purchase. L. P. X. 41520.

TRACY, S. M., Biloxi, Miss.: Fern from Mississippi (41908); 3 plants (41920); specimen of fern representing the species *Trichomanes petersii* from Mississippi (42413); 2 specimens of *Botrychium*

TRACY, S. M.—Continued.
from the Southern States (42594). (See also under Department of Agriculture.)

TRAPHAGEN, F. W., Golden, Colo.: Nineteen photographs representing views of Montana. 41618. (See also under State College, Bozeman, Mont.)

TRASK, Mrs. BLANCHE, Avalon, Cal.: Specimen of *Epiphragmorpha intercisa*, variety *crebristriata* Newc., from San Clemente Island (gift) (41602); 2 plants from California (gift) (42097); 224 plants from California (purchase) (42252); 2 specimens of seaweeds (gift) (42373); 2 specimens of *Lycodina fungina* Gabb. (gift) (42495); specimens of *Cerostoma nuttalli* Conr., specimen of *Calliostoma supragranosa* Spr., from Catalina Island (gift) (42662); 8 plants from California (gift) (42845).

TREASURY DEPARTMENT: Received through Hon. L. M. Shaw, Secretary. Plaster bust of President Lincoln, taken by F. F. Mills. 42710.

TRELEASE, Prof. WILLIAM. (See under Effie P. Taylor.)

TRUE, Dr. F. W., U. S. National Museum: Specimens of marine worms and invertebrates collected at Brooklyn, Hancock County, Me. 41530.

TSUCHIDA, T., Misaki, Miura, Japan: Seventeen moles and rodents from Japan. Purchase. 42680.

TULLOCK, A. E., Hawaii, Hawaiian Islands: Received through Department of Agriculture. Plant from the Hawaiian Islands. 42901.

TURCKHEIM, H. VON. (See under Capt. John Donnell Smith.)

TURNER, C. S., Atlanta, Ga.: Water-beetle, *Cybister oliveri* Cr. 41743.

TURNER, GEORGE, U. S. National Museum: Fourteen pearls taken from a shell of *Ostrea virginica*. 42394.

TURNER, Mrs. S. E., North Chesapeake Beach, Md.: Two spoons made from the horns of Rocky Mountain sheep; spoon made from the horn of a Rocky Mountain goat; carved horn of a cow, and an Eskimo waterproof shirt. Purchase. L. P. X. 41373.

TUSHOFF, Dr. VLADIMIR, Petropaulovsk, Kamchatka: Five salamanders from Kamchatka. 41405.

TUTTLE, Miss C. M., University of Virginia, Charlottsville, Va.: Two unfinished coiled baskets in rafia. 41255.

UHLER, Prof. P. R., Peabody Library, Baltimore, Md.: Two beetles from Jamaica. 41933.

ULBRICHT, R. E., New York City: Mexican idol carved in serpentine. Purchase. L. P. X. 41871.

ULRICH, E. O., U. S. Geological Survey: Remainder of Ulrich collection, consisting of mollusks and miscellaneous material represented by about 500 type lots and upward of 15,000 specimens. Purchase. 42804.

UMBACH, L. M., Northwestern College, Naperville, Ill.: Four specimens of *Laciniaria scariosa*. 43556.

UNDERWOOD, L. M. (See under New York Botanical Garden.)

UNGER, C. W., Pottsville, Pa.: Fossil plants from the upper anthracite series of the Carboniferous at various localities near Pottsville. 42672.

UNITED STATES NATIONAL MUSEUM: The following models were made in the Anthropological Laboratory: Cast of feathered serpent (41374); cast of coiled feathered serpent (41375); cast of carved slate box (41376); cast of pottery vase from Brazil (41377); cast of bird god (41417); cast of pottery vase (41418); Indian drums and sticks, Indian flutes, horn rattles, notched rattles, and blades for rattles (41427); cast of jade carving, cast of painted vase, cast of jade carving, and cast of wood carving (41548); 3 sets (16 each) of models of oriental seals (41673); plaster cast of Zemé idol (41789); cast of stone pestle, casts of Zemé idols, and cast of a pottery vase (41790); cast of a large painted vase (41853); 4 plaster casts of a carved stool and 8 plaster casts of stone collars (41866); 4 plaster casts of Mexican stone yoke; 8 plaster casts of a stone collar (41869); plaster casts of 15 stone implements (42004); wooden model of a war club (42025); 2 pho-

U. S. National Museum—Continued.
tographic copies of Japanese music (42058); plaster casts of carved stone Zemé, stone pestles, pottery vase, stone Zemé, stone polisher, and stone implement (42079); miniature model of a whale (42080); casts of stone slab, Zemés, sculptured stone, and vase (42162); casts of Indians for collections in physical anthropology (42191); negatives taken for racial measurements (42203); three-tongued jew's-harp (42295); 5 models of Yucatan temples (42311); 2 models of wooden three-pronged jew's-harp (42312); models of implements from Alaska, 2 rattles and 5 small models of fin-back whales (42313); 15 casts of Mexican and Central American pottery (42325); 4 copies of Alaskan religious implements (42375); cast of vase from Central America and cast of a figure from Mexico (42387); cast of pottery vase and 4 casts of pottery bowls (42425); model of Alaskan drum and a model of a Zuñi snake (42432); cast of William Snow, a Seneca Indian (42443); 4 casts of bowls and 3 casts of collars (42457); casts of collar, animals, metate, and bowls (42462); 2 casts of a spearhead from Oatka Island (42469); cast of carved bowl (42479); wooden mask and a carved stone mask (42508); cast of jade pendant and casts of throwing-sticks (42532); model of Haida mask (42535); series of fire-making apparatus (42559); 7 casts of stone pipes (42568); cast of carved stone amulet, cast of dish, and cast of a swallowing stick (42595); 2 models of musical instruments (42615); cast of a spearhead, cast of a flint dagger, cast of drilled ax, casts of flint hatchets, and cast of a flint chisel (42626); cast of stone implement (42644); Sioux cradle and child (42791); 5 arc electric lamps of obsolete pattern (42825).

Urbina, Dr. Manuel, National Museum, City of Mexico, Mexico: Two plants from Mexico. 41810.

Valentine, F. B., Ridgely, W. Va.: Seven flint implements. Exchange. 42399.

Vallette, C. D., Chicago, Ill.: Specimen of Lace-winged fly, *Chrysopa tabida* Fitch. 41504.

Van Ingen & Van Ingen, Ootocamund, India: Two Indian ungulates (Axis deer and Sambur stag) (purchase) (L. P. X.) (41644); 4 Indian ungulates (purchase) (42262).

Vassilief, Ivan, Bureau of Entomology, St. Petersburg, Russia: Twelve hymenopterous insects. 41736.

Vaughan, T. Wayland. (See under Interior Department, U. S. Geological Survey.)

Vienna, Austria, First Zoological Institute of the Imperial University: Received through Dr. F. Werner. Fishes and reptiles from North Africa, Asia Minor, and other localities. Exchange. 42685.

Vienna, Austria, K. K. Naturhistorisches Hofmuseum, received through Dr. Theodore Fuchs: Unassorted bryozoans and ostracods from 18 localities in Europe, of the Mesozoic and Tertiary age (42118); 107 specimens of fungi from Europe (42853). Exchange.

Viereck, H. L., Academy of Natural Sciences, Philadelphia, Pa.: Specimen of *Odontophotopsis exogyrus* Viereck (paratype). Exchange. 41663.

Vroman, A. C., Pasadena, Cal.: One hundred and sixteen photographs of California missions, and a book of "Mission memories." 42577.

Walcott, Benjamin S., Washington, D.C.: Received through Hon. C. D. Walcott: Specimens of Devonian fossils from near Canandaigua, N. Y. Exchange. 41691.

Walcott, Hon. Charles D. (See under Benjamin S. Walcott.)

Walker, B. E., Canadian Bank of Commerce, Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Seven specimens of *Callocystites*, 19 specimens of *Caryocrinus ornatus*, and 1 specimen of *Cœlocystis*. Exchange. 42729.

Walker, Bryant, Detroit, Mich.: Twenty specimens of fresh-water shells, including 3 cotypes of *Lioplax pilsbryi* Walker. 42754.

WALKER, G., Furman, S. C.: Pedipalp, or Pseudoscorpion, *Chelifer muriatus* Say. 41670.

WALPOLE, W. A., Gorda, Cal.: Ten specimens of living plants from California. 42473.

WAR DEPARTMENT: Received through Brig. Gen. William Crozier, Chief of Ordnance Department: Large and comprehensive collection of muskets, rifles, pistols, bayonets, and parts of small arms, various implements used in the U. S. Army for entrenching purposes, relics of the civil war, swords used by European and American armies, and Indian objects (41356); received through the Bureau of Insular Affairs, 358 scarf pins, 3 Philippine flags, 154 buttons with head of Aguinaldo, 5 medallions, 3 pairs of cuff buttons, 2 scarf pins, and 2 breastpins for ladies (41398); received through the Office of the Adjutant-General, section of the original Fort Sumter flagstaff (41807); received through Surg. Gen. R. M. O'Reilly, collection of articulated skeletons, skulls, pelvis bones, brains, and instruments of measurement (42109); through the Bureau of Ordnance, collection of small arms and parts of same, models of projectiles, arms, etc., hand and leg shackles, keys, and bags (42272); received through Capt. G. W. Baird, U. S. Navy, Krupp gun and carriage captured at Pekin, China, and a mahogany gun carriage captured in Cuba (42298); through Army Medical Museum, Dr. R. M. O'Reilly, small antique vase, 2 fragments of antique vases, gold seal ring, small pottery ring, and a Roman bronze coin (42423); through Gen. A. W. Greely, Ferguson breech-loading rifle with bayonet, belonging to Gen. John Watts de Peyster (loan and returned) (42810). Deposit. (See also under Brig. Gen. W. H. Carter.)

WARD, H. A., Rochester, N. Y.: Large mass of amethystine quartz (42254); large slab of meteoric iron from Mukerop, Africa (41880). Purchase. L. P. X.

WARD, Prof. LESTER F., U. S. Geological Survey, Washington, D. C.: Three plants. 42100.

WARD, ROWLAND, London, England. Hippopotamus (42639); skin and skull of *Connochætes gnu* (42719). Purchase. L. P. X.

WARD'S NATURAL SCIENCE ESTABLISHMENT, Rochester, N. Y.: Three hundred gram section of Franceville meteorite (purchase) L. P. X. (41472); monkey skin and skull (purchase) (41906); specimen of agate from Brazil (purchase) L. P. X. (42026); skin of White egret, skins of Magpie lark, nest of Guacharo bird and nest of Magpie lark (purchase) L. P. X. (42177); skins of Brush turkey, *Leipoa ocellata* (purchase) (42196); specimen of pyromorphite and 5 specimens of alexandrite (purchase) L. P. X. (42095); skeleton of a monkey (purchase) (42524); 44 specimens consisting principally of Indo-Pacific marine shells (purchase) (42929).

WARFIELD, Dr. W. A., Washington, D. C.: Fœtus. 41689.

WARNER, W. V., U. S. National Museum. Six sulphur matches manufactured at Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio, in 1835 (42237); 120 specimens of miscellaneous insects from the District of Columbia and vicinity (42619). (See also under Washington Biologists' Field Club).

WASHINGTON AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, Pullman, Wash. Received through Prof. C. V. Piper. Thirty-eight types and 36 cotypes: also 29 specimens of Tipulidæ. 41765.

WASHINGTON ASYLUM HOSPITAL, Washington, D. C.: Brain of a colored woman. 41639.

WASHINGTON BIOLOGISTS FIELD CLUB (through E. A. Schwarz, H. S. Barber, August Busck, Rolla P. Currie, H. G. Dyar, and W. V. Warner): Three thousand four hundred and three insects of all orders from Plummers Island, Maryland, captured during the season of 1903. 42620.

WASHINGTON, CHARLES, U. S. National Museum: Snake (*Diadophis punctatus*, from Berwyn, Md. (41482); shrew (*Blarina brevicauda*) (41739).

WATKINS, Estate of J. E. Received through Mrs. J. E. Watkins, Washington, D. C.: United States flag used on the locomotive "John Bull." 41697.

WEBB, J. C., Esprey, Fla.: Snake (*Diadophis punctatus*) from Florida. 41469.

WEBBER, H. J. (See under Mrs. T. A. Williams.)

WEEDON, W. C., U. S. National Museum: Specimen of Black-throated blue warbler, *Dendroica cærulescens*. 42817.

WEINBERG, FRANK, Woodside, L. I.: Eight plants. 42902.

WELDON, W. F. R. (See under Oxford, Museum of the University of.)

WELLAUER, EMIL, Washington, D. C.: Model of the Morse telegraph instrument of 1844 (41567); 5 models of propellers (42362); model of John Stevens' propeller of 1804 (42363). Purchase.

WELLER, Prof. STUART, University of Chicago, Ill.: Twenty species of fossils from the Decker Ferry and other formations of New Jersey. Exchange. 42580.

WELLMAN, E. S., Naples, Me.: Specimen of garnetiferous mica schist from Cumberland County, Me. 41619.

WELLS, WILLIAM, Las Vegas, N. Mex.: Three specimens of sandstone. 42447.

WERNER, Dr. FRANZ, First Zoological Institute, Imperial University, Vienna, Austria: Two lizards from Europe. Exchange. 41590. (See also under Vienna, Austria.)

WESTERN NEW YORK INSTITUTION FOR DEAF MUTES, Rochester, N. Y.: Specimens of Rochester shales bryozoans. Loan. 42460.

WHARTON, J. R., Butte, Mont.: Large crystal of smoky quartz. 41625.

WHEATON, Mrs. M. B., Washington, D.C.: Photograph of oil painting of Gen. Alex. Macomb, U. S. Army; framed photographs of Maj. Gen. John Sedgwick, U. S. Army, and a sash worn by him during the civil war. Loan. 8887. (See also under Mrs. F. C. d'Hautville.)

WHEELER, C. F., Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of *Quercus heterophylla* from the District of Columbia (41569); plant (41666); plants from the District of Columbia (41733, 41845).

WHEELER, J., Washington, D. C.: Plant from Maryland collected by F. H. Hillman. 41758.

WHITE, DAVID, U. S. Geological Survey. Received through the Survey: Two plants from Virginia (41541); specimen of fire clay from Clay mine, Hammond, W. Va. (41768). (See also under Frederic Brown; James Campbell; H. M. Lane; S. W. McCallie.)

WICKHAM, Prof. H. F., Iowa City, Iowa: Specimens of parasitic Hymenoptera. 41898

WILCOX, Dr. G. B., Fort Stanton, N. Mex. Received through Department of Agriculture: Plant from New Mexico. 42784.

WILCOX, Brig. Gen. T. E., U. S. Army (Retired). Received through Department of Agriculture: Two specimens of *Asarum caudatum* from Vancouver, Wash. (41769). (See also under D. McLean.)

WILLIAMS, A., Berryville, Va.: Tower musket. (Loan.) 9475 (Returned).

WILLIAMS, GARDNER F. (See under De Beers Consolidated Mines, Kimberly, South Africa.)

WILLIAMS, R. W., jr., Biological Survey, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: Specimen of Vermilion flycatcher, *Pyrocephalus rubineus mexicanus*, from Florida. 41795.

WILLIAMS, Mrs. T. A. Received through H. J. Webber, Department of Agriculture: Fifteen thousand plants belonging to the late T. A. Williams. 41337.

WILLIAMSON, Prof. E. B., Bluffton, Ind.: Three specimens of insects (41755); received through Rolla P. Currie, 70 specimens of North American dragonflies (42210). (See also under Homer Kapp.)

WILLIMOTT, C. W., Ottawa, Canada: Specimens of Canadian minerals. 42859.

WILLIS, RICHARD, Olga, Wash.: Crabs, shrimps, and a nudibranch mollusk. 41969.

WILLISTON, Prof. S. W., and E. B. Branson, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.: Large specimen of *Inoceramus* sp. from the chalk formation near Monument Rocks, Logan County, Kans. 41940.

WILLOUGHBY, Prof. C. C. (See under Peabody Museum, Boston, Mass.)

WILMER, Col. L. WORTHINGTON, Ryde, Isle of Wight, England: Specimens of miscellaneous shells from various localities and Cretaceous fossils from the "Perma bed" at Ryde (41965); 50 specimens of Mesozoic fossils from the Isle of Wight (42796).

WILSON, F. H., Brunswick, Me.: Specimen of glassy quartz from a quarry at Topsham, Me. L. P. X. 41995.

WILSON, Miss G. R., Fort George, Fla.: Holothurian representing the species *Thyone briareus*. 42519.

WILSON, J. FRANK, U. S. National Museum: Archeological collections of the late Thomas Wilson, numbering 19,334 specimens. Purchase. 42207.

WINDLE, FRANCIS, Westchester, Pa.: Plants from Pennsylvania (42555; 42742).

WISE, ISADORE, Green River, Utah: Received through Prof. F. W. Clarke. Specimen of dark sandstone with carnotite from San Rafael swell, Utah. 42490.

WITT, GEORGE C., Austin, Tex.: Two specimens of *Nyctinomus*. 42344.

WOOD, FRANK W., Crimora, Va.: Received through W. C. Phalen. Stalactitic psilomelane from Virginia. 42575.

WOOD, N. R., U. S. National Museum: Specimens of *Mus musculus* (41926; 42102; 42077); 6 eggs of *Gallus gallus* (42347).

WOODEND CURIO COMPANY, Denver, Colo.: Ten specimens of minerals. Purchase. L. P. X. 41633.

WOODGATE, JOHN, Fort Wingate, N. Mex.: Two plants from New Mexico. 41270.

WOOTON, Prof. E. O., Mesilla Park, N. Mex.: Bat (*Euderma*) from Mesilla Park (41592); 4 plants from New Mexico (42085).

WORCESTER, Prof. DEAN C. (See under Philippine Museum, Manila, P. I.

WORTH, S. G. (See under Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Fisheries.)

WORTHEN, C. K., Warsaw, Ill.: Eleven birds' skins, principally Birds of Paradise (purchase) (41310); skin of *Astrapia splendidissima* (purchase) L. P. X. (41311); Florida crocodile (purchase) (41364); 3 birds' skins (purchase) L. P. X. (42105); skin of *Lycocorax obiensis* (purchase) (42127).

WREN, CHRISTOPHER, Plymouth, Pa.: Six sandstone disks from Luzerne County, Pa. 41994.

YAKOVLEFF, Herr NIKOLAI, Institute of Mines, St. Petersburg, Russia: Two wax casts of the hinge of a supposed new genus of Crassatellitidæ from Russia. 41967.

YALE UNIVERSITY MUSEUM, New Haven, Conn.: Received through Dr. C. E. Beecher. Specimen of hypotype and ten fragments of *Romingeria umbellifera;* 5 opercula of *Maclurea lozani*, and 580 specimens of Hamilton formation brachiopods from Canandaigua Lake, New York. 42129.

YOUNG, R. T. (no address given): Cone from France. 42302.

ZELEDON, JOSÉ ANTONIO, Washington, D. C.: Bow and 12 arrows from Costa Rica. 42721.

ZELEDON, JOSÉ C., San José, Costa Rica: Specimen of salamander (*Oedipina uniformis*, and a leech (*Bipalium kewense*(?) Mos). 41718.

ZELL, LUCIAN M. (See under American Gem and Pearl Company.)

ZOLLER, WILLIAM NORRIS, Aquiree, Central Porto Rico: Received through Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology. Two stone idols and a broken bowl. 42914.

Zollikofer, E. H., St. Gallen, Switzerland: Small mammals from Switzerland. 42642.

Zoological Museum of the University of Copenhagen. (See under Copenhagen, Denmark.)

Zuck, Dr. F. M., Holbrook, Ariz.: Received through Dr. Walter Hough. Breech-loading Springfield rifle and bayonet, issued by order of General Miles to arm the settlers of Arizona during the Geronimo outbreak, and three cartridges. 42497.

APPENDIX III.

Bibliography, 1903–04.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE MUSEUM.

ANNUAL REPORT.

Annual Report | of the | Board of Regents | of the | Smithsonian Institution, | showing the operations, expenditures, and condition of | the Institution | for the | year ending June 30, 1901. | Report | of the | U. S. National Museum. [Seal] Washington: | Government Printing Office. | 1903.

8vo., pp. I–XVI, 1–452, pls. 208, text figs. 23.

Annual Report | of the | Board of Regents | of the | Smithsonian Institution, | showing the operations, expenditures, and condition of | the Institution | for the | year ending June 30, 1902. | Report | of the | U. S. National Museum. [Seal] Washington: | Government Printing Office. | 1904.

8vo., pp. I–XXIV, 1–784, pls. 261, text figs. 409.

PROCEEDINGS.

Smithsonian Institution. | United States National Museum. | — | Proceedings | of the | United States National Museum. | — | Volume XXV. | — | Published under the direction of the Smithsonian Institution. [Seal] Washington: Government Printing Office. | 1903. |

8vo., pp. I–XIV, 1–1021, pls. 1–32, text figs. 144.

Smithsonian Institution. | United States National Museum. | — | Proceedings | of the | United States National Museum. | — | Volume XXVI. | — | Published under the direction of the Smithsonian Institution. [Seal] Washington: Government Printing Office. | 1903. |

8vo., pp. I–XV, 1–1058, pls. 1–69, text figs. 194.

Smithsonian Institution. | United States National Museum. | — | Proceedings | of the | United States National Museum. | — | Volume XXVII. | — | Published under the direction of the Smithsonian Institution. [Seal] Washington: Government Printing Office. | 1904. |

8vo., pp. I–XVII, 1–998, pls. 1–50, text figs. 279.

SPECIAL BULLETIN.

Smithsonian Institution. | United States National Museum. | — | Special Bulletin. | — | American Hydroids. | — | Part II. | The Sertularidæ, | with forty-one plates. | By | Charles Cleveland Nutting, | Professor of Zoology, University of Iowa. | — | Washington: | Government Printing Office. | 1904.

Special Bulletin U. S. Nat. Mus., No. 4 (Part II), 4to., pp. I, II, 1–325, pls. 1–41. 159 figs.

PAPERS PUBLISHED IN SEPARATE FORM.

FROM THE REPORT FOR 1901.

Report upon the condition and progress of the U. S. National Museum during the year ending June 30, 1901. By Richard Rathbun. pp. 1–174.

Report on the Department of Anthropology for the year 1900–1901. By William H. Holmes. pp. 51–61.

Report on the Department of Biology for the year 1900–1901. By Frederick W. True. pp. 63–80.

Report on the Department of Geology for the year 1900–1901. By George P. Merrill. pp. 81–91.

Report on the exhibit of the United

States National Museum at the Pan-American Exposition, Buffalo, New York, 1901. By Frederick W. True, William H. Holmes, and George P. Merrill. pp. 177–231, pls. 1–72.

Flint implements and fossil remains from a sulphur spring at Afton, Indian Territory. By William Henry Holmes. pp. 233–252, pls. 1–26.

Classification and arrangement of the exhibits of an anthropological museum. By William Henry Holmes. pp. 253–278, pl. 1.

Archeological field work in northeastern Arizona. The Museum-Gates Expedition of 1901. By Walter Hough. pp. 279–358, pls. 1–101.

Narrative of a visit to the Indian tribes of the Purus River, Brazil. By Joseph Beal Steere. pp. 359–393, pls. 1–9.

FROM THE REPORT FOR 1902.

Report upon the condition and progress of the U. S. National Museum during the year ending June 30, 1902. By Richard Rathbun. pp. 1–168.

Report on the Department of Anthropology for the year 1901–1902. By William H. Holmes. pp. 53–58.

Report on the Department of Biology for the year 1901–1902. By Frederick W. True. pp. 59–76.

Report on the Department of Geology for the year 1901–1902. By George P. Merrill. pp. 77–84.

Aboriginal American Basketry: Studies in a textile art without machinery. By Otis Tufton Mason. pp. 171–548, pls. 1–248.

The Herpetology of Porto Rico. By Leonhard Stejneger. pp. 549–724, figs. 1–197.

Wokas: A primitive food of the Klamath Indians. By Frederick Vernon Coville. pp. 725–739, pls. 1–13.

FROM VOLUME 26, PROCEEDINGS OF THE U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM.

No. 1333. Notes on Orthoptera from Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, and Texas, with descriptions of new species. By Andrew Nelson Caudell. pp. 775–809, pl. LV.

No. 1334. A review of the Cyprinoid fishes of Japan. By David Starr Jordan and Henry W. Fowler. pp. 811–862, figs. 1–8.

No. 1335. The Phasmidæ, or Walking-sticks of the United States. By Andrew Nelson Caudell. pp. 863–885, pls. LVI–LIX.

No. 1336. Description of an extinct mink from the shell heaps of the Maine coast. By Daniel Webster Prentiss. pp. 887, 888, fig. 1.

No. 1337. Revision of the Crustacea of the genus *Lepidopa*. By James E. Benedict. pp. 889–895, figs. 1–8.

No. 1338. A review of the Siluroid fishes or catfishes of Japan. By David Starr Jordan and Henry W. Fowler. pp. 897–911, figs. 1, 2.

No. 1339. Notice of a collection of fishes made by H. H. Brimley in Cane River and Bollings Creek, North Carolina, with a description of a new species of *Notropis* (*N. brimleyi*). pp. 913, 914.

No. 1340. On the relations of the fishes of the family Lampridiidæ or Ophas. By Theodore Gill. pp. 915–924, figs. 1–3.

No. 1341. Amphipoda from Costa Rica. By Rev. Thomas R. R. Stebbing. pp. 925–931, pls. LX, LXI.

No. 1342. Synopsis of the family Astartidæ, with a review of the American species. By William H. Dall. pp. 933–951, pls. LXII, LXIII.

No. 1343. An Alaskan Corymorpha-like hydroid. By Samuel Fessenden Clarke. pp. 953–958, figs. 1–7.

No. 1344. On some neglected genera of fishes. By Theodore Gill. pp. 959–962.

No. 1345. Notice of a small collection of fishes, including a rare eel, recently received from H. Maxwell Lefroy, Bridgetown, Barbados, West Indies. By Barton A. Bean. pp. 963, 964, fig. 1.

No. 1346. On some fish genera of the first edition of Cuvier's Règne Animal and Oken's Names. By Theodore Gill. pp. 965–967.

No. 1347. Report on the fresh-water Ostracoda of the United States National Museum, including a revision of the subfamilies and genera of the family Cyprididæ. By Richard W. Sharpe. pp. 969–1001, pls. LXIV—LXIX.

No. 1348. A review of the fishes of Japan belonging to the family Hexagrammidæ. By David Starr Jordan and Edwin Chapin Starks. pp. 1003–1013, figs. 1–3.

No. 1349. Notes on the fish genera named *Macrodon*. By Theodore Gill. pp. 1015, 1016.

FROM VOLUME 27, PROCEEDINGS OF THE U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM.

No. 1350. Contributions to the Natural History of the Isopoda. By Harriet Richardson. pp. 1–89, figs. 1–92.

No. 1351. A review of the Scorpænoid fishes of Japan. By David Starr Jordan and Edwin Chapin Starks. pp. 91–175, pls. I, II, figs. 1–21.

No. 1352. A revision of the American Great Horned Owls. By Harry C. Oberholser. pp. 177–192.

No. 1353. A new batrachian and a new reptile from the Trias of Arizona. By Frederic A. Lucas. pp. 193–195, pls. III, IV.

No. 1354. A review of the wrens of the genus *Troglodytes*. By Harry C. Oberholser. pp. 197–210, pl. V.

No. 1355. Report on the fresh-water Bryozoa of the United States. By Charles B. Davenport. pp. 211–221, pl. VI.

No. 1356. On the species of White Chimæra from Japan. By David Starr Jordan and John Otterbein Snyder. pp. 223–226, figs. 1, 2.

No. 1357. Notes on a Killer Whale (genus *Orcinus*) from the coast of Maine. By Frederick W. True. pp. 227–230, pls. VII, VIII.

No. 1358. A review of the Cottidæ or sculpins found in the waters of Japan. By David Starr Jordan and Edwin Chapin Starks. pp. 231–335, figs. 1–43.

No. 1359. Notes on the bats collected by William Palmer in Cuba. By Gerrit S. Miller, jr. pp. 337–348, pl. IX.

No. 1360. List of Hemiptera-Heteroptera of Las Vegas Hot Springs, New Mexico, collected by Messrs. E. A. Schwarz and Herbert S. Barber. By Philip R. Uhler. pp. 349–364.

No. 1361. A revision of American Siphonaptera, or fleas, together with a complete list and bibliography of the group. By Carl F. Baker. pp. 365–469, pls. X–XXVI.

No. 1362. The Aleyrodids, or Mealy-winged flies, of California, with references to other American species. By Florence E. Bemis. pp. 471–537, pls. XXVII–XXXVII.

No. 1363. Studies in Old World forficulids or earwigs, and blattids or cockroaches. By James A. G. Rehn. pp. 539–560.

No. 1364. Studies in American mantids or soothsayers. By James A. G. Rehn. pp. 561–574.

No. 1365. A review of the Japanese fishes of the family of Agonidæ. By David Starr Jordan and Edwin Chapin Starks. pp. 575–599, figs. 1–13.

No. 1366. The osteology of some Berycoid fishes. By Edwin Chapin Starks. pp. 601–619, figs. 1–10.

No. 1367. A new genus and two new species of crustaceans of the family Albuneidæ from the Pacific Ocean; with remarks on the probable use of the antennulæ in *Albunea* and *Lepidopa*. By James E. Benedict. pp. 621–625, figs. 1–5.

No. 1368. A new species of *Argulus*, with a more complete account of two species already described. By Charles Branch Wilson. pp. 627–655, figs. 1–38.

No. 1369. Contributions to the natural history of the Isopoda. V.—Isopod crustaceans of the northwest coast of North America. By Harriet Richardson. pp. 657–681, figs. 1–39.

No. 1370. Description of a new African Weaver-bird. By Harry C. Oberholser. p. 683.

No. 1371. New Dragon-fly nymphs in the United States National Museum. By James G. Needham. pp. 685–720, pls. XXXVIII–XLIV, figs. 1–11.

No. 1372. New molluscan genera from the Carboniferous. By George H. Girty. pp. 721–736, pls. XLV–XLVII.

No. 1373. Descriptions of two new birds from Somali Land. By Harry C. Oberholser. pp. 737–739.

No. 1374. Two new ferns of the genus *Polypodium*, from Jamaica. By William R. Maxon. pp. 741–744.

No. 1375. Tineid moths from British Columbia, with descriptions of new species. By August Busck. pp. 745–778.

No. 1376. The Lepidoptera of the Kootenay District of British Columbia. By Harrison G. Dyar. pp. 779–938.

No. 1377. Notes on collections of fishes from Oahu Island and Laysan Island, Hawaii, with descriptions of four new species. By David Starr Jordan and John Otterbein Snyder. pp. 939–948.

No. 1378. Two Orthoptera, hitherto unrecorded, from the United States. By Andrew Nelson Caudell. pp. 949–952, figs. 1–3.

No. 1379. A new fern, *Goniophlebium pringlei*, from Mexico. By William R. Maxon. pp. 953–954, pl. XLVIII, fig. 1.

No. 1380. The Persimmon Creek meteorite. By Wirt Tassin. pp. 955–959, pls. XLIX, L, fig. 1.

No. 1381. *Schmidtina*, a genus of Japanese sculpins. By David Starr Jordan and Edwin Chapin Starks. p. 961.

PAPERS BY OFFICERS OF THE NATIONAL MUSEUM AND OTHERS, BASED WHOLLY OR IN PART UPON THE NATIONAL COLLECTIONS.

AMERICAN ORNITHOLOGISTS' UNION. (Committee on Nomenclature.) Twelfth Supplement to the American Ornithologists' Union Check List of North American Birds.

Auk, XX, No. 3, July, 1903, pp. 331-368.

The Twelfth Supplement to the American Ornithologists' Union Check List gives the rulings of the committee on 83 cases. A list of deferred cases is also given.

ARNOLD, RALPH. The Paleontology and stratigraphy of the marine Pliocene and Pleistocene of San Pedro, California.

Memoirs Cal. Acad. Sci., III, 1903, pp. 1-420, pls. I-XXXVII.

A review of the paleontology and geology of the beds in the vicinity of San Pedro, with descriptions, figures, sections, and views of the locality and a bibliography. Four hundred and eight species are considered, of which many are new. The types of new species were given to the National Museum, so far as they were controlled by Mr. Arnold, and now form part of the collection. The Pyramidellidæ and corals of this volume were worked up by Dall and Bartsch, and Vaughan, respectively (q. v.). The new species described by Mr. Arnold are as follows, in zoological order:

Terebratalia smithi, *Leda minuta* Fabr. *var. præcursor*, *Pecten* (*Chlamys*) *jordani*, *Pecten* (*Chalmys*) *latiauritus* Con., *var. fragilis*, *Pecten* (*Plagioctenium*) *newsomi*, *Crassinella branneri*, *Aligena cerritensis*, *Callista subdiaphana* Cpr. *var. pedroana*, *Semele pulchra* Sby, *var. montereyi*, *Pleurotoma* (*Borsonia*) *bartschi*, *Pleurotoma* (*Borsonia*) *dalli*, *Pleurotoma* (*Borsonia*) *hooveri*, *Pleurotoma* (*Leucosyrinx*) *pedroana*, *Pleurotoma* (*Genota*) *cooperi*, *Drillia johnsoni*, *Drillia merriami*, *Drillia renaudi*, *Bela sanctamonicæ*, *Mangilia* (*Cythara*) *branneri*, *Mangilia* (*Mangilia*) *hooveri*, *Mangilia* (*Mangilia*) *interfossa var. pedroana*, *Mangilia* (*Mangilia*) *oldroydi*, *Mangilia* (*Mangilia*) *painei*, *Mangilia* (*Taranis*) *strongi*, *Mangilia* (*Spirotropis*) *smithi*, *Mitra* (*Mitromorpha*) *intermedia*, *Nassa cerritensis*, *Nassa versicolor* C. B. Ad., *var. hooveri* *Columbella solidula* Rve., *var. præcursor*, *Columbella* (*Anachis*) *minima*, *Columbella* (*Æsopus*) *oldroydi*, *Columbella* (*Amphissa*) *ventricosa*, *Eupleura muriciformis* Brod., *var. curta*, *Trophon* (*Boreotrophon*) *cerritensis*, *Trophon* (*Boreotrophon*) *pedroana*, *Trophon* (*Boreotrophon*) *orpheus*, *var. præcursor*, *Ocinebra keepi*, *Ocinebra lurida* Midd., *var. cerritensis*, *Bittium williamsoni*, *Paludestrina curta*, *Paludestrina stokesi*, *Delphinoidea coronadocnsis*, *Margarita optabilis* Cpr. *vars. knechti*, *nodosa*, *and pedroana*.

ASHMEAD, WILLIAM H. Classification of the fossorial, predaceous, and parasitic wasps, or the superfamily Vespoidea. Paper No. 15.

Can. Ent., XXXV, July, 1903, pp. 199-205.

Treats of the family Myrmosidæ, which is divided into three subfamilies: (1) Bradynobæninæ, (2) Myrmosinæ, and (3) Apterogyninæ. The Myrmosinæ are again divided into two tribes, (1) Myrmosini and (2) Chyphotini. In all nine genera are tabulated.

——— Two new phytophagous Hymenoptera.

Can. Ent., XXXV, August, 1903, p. 233.

Describes *Xiphydria erythrogaster* and *Calameuta johnsoni* from New Jersey.

——— Classification of the gall-wasps and the parasitic Cynipoides, or the superfamily Cynipoidea. III.

Psyche, X, August, 1903, pp. 140-155.

Treats of the subfamily Xystinæ and part of the family Cynipidæ. The subfamily Xystinæ is divided into two tribes: (1) Loboscelidiini and (2) Xystini. Eleven genera are tabulated. The family Cynipidæ is divided into three subfamilies: (1) Synerginæ, (2) Cynipinæ, and (3) Ibaliinæ. In the Synerginæ 8 genera are tabulated, one, *Synophromorpha*, being new. Doctor Ashmead subdivides the Cynipinæ, or the true gall-makers, into 5 tribes: (1) Cynipini, (2) Rhoditini, (3) Pediaspidini, (4) Aulacini, and (5) Eschatocerini. In the tribe Cynipini 32 genera are tabulated.

——— A new *Paranomia* from British Columbia.

Can. Ent. XXXV, Sept., 1903, p. 243.

Describes *Paranomia venablesii*.

——— Two new hymenopterous parasites.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XI, Sept., 1903, No. 3, p. 144.

Describes *Orgilus kearfotti* and *Protapanteles recurvariæ*.

——— Classification of the gall-wasps and the parasitic Cynipoids, or the superfamily Cynipoidea. IV.

Psyche, X, Oct., 1903, pp. 210-216.

Treats of the tribes Rhoditini, Pediaspidini Aulacini, and Eschatocerini; also of the subfamily Ibaliinæ. In all 21 genera are tabulated, one, *Pseudaulax* being new. In an addenda a revised generic table of the Onychiinæ is given, in order to include two new genera described by Abbé Kieffer.

——— Classification of the fossorial, predaceous, and parasitic wasps, or the superfamily Vespoidea. (Paper No. 16).

ASHMEAD, WILLIAM H.—Continued.

Can. Ent., XXXV, Nov., 1903, pp. 303–310.

Treats of the family Mutillidæ, which is divided into two subfamilies, (1) Mutillini and (2) Ephutini. The first subfamily is divided into two tribes, (1) Phtopsidini and (2) Mutillini. A generic table of the Photopsidini is then given in which 17 genera are tabulated, four of which are new, namely, *Tetraphotopsis*, *Neophotopsis*, *Bruesia*, and *Leucospilomutilla*.

——— A new *Ammoplanus*.

Ent. News, XIV, Nov., 1903, p. 295.

Describes *Ammoplanus cockerelli* from New Mexico.

——— Classification of the fossorial, predaceous, and parasitic wasps, or the superfamily Vespoidea. (Paper No. 17.)

Can. Ent., XXXV, Dec., 1903, pp. 323–332.

Treats of the tribe Mutillini. In this paper 31 genera are tabulated, 11 being described as new, viz: *Spilomutilla*, *Viereckia*, *Apteromutilla*, *Dimorphomutilla*, *Euspinolia*, *Radoszkowskius*, *Blakeius*, *Myrmecomutilla*, *Peringueya*, *Pristomutilla*, and *Xenomutilla*.

——— A new joint-worm parasite from Russia.

Can. Ent., XXXV, Dec., 1903, pp. 332, 333.

Describes *Homoporus vassiliefi*.

——— Classification of the fossorial, predaceous and parasitic wasps, or the superfamily Vespoidea. (Paper No. 18—conclusion.)

Can. Ent. XXXVI, Jan., 1904, pp. 5–9.

Treats of the subfamily Ephutinæ, which is divided into *two* tribes: (1) Ephutini and (2) Sphærophthalmini. 13 genera are tabulated, of which *Ephutopsis*, *Pycnomutilla* and *Reedia* are new.

——— Description of the type of the genus *Curriea* Ashmead.

Ent. New., XV, Jan., 1904, p. 18.

Describes and figures *Curriea fasciatipennis* from Africa.

——— Descriptions of four new horn-tails.

Can. Ent., XXXVI, Mar., 1904, pp. 63, 64.

Describes *Sierex taxodii*, *S. fiskei*, *Paururus californicus* and *P. hopkinsi;* also the male of *P. pinicola* Ashm.

——— A list of the Hymenoptera of the Philippine Islands, with descriptions of new species.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, Mar., 1904, pp. 1–22.

Records 183 species of Hymenoptera from the Philippines, two genera and 31 species being described as new.

——— A new Alysiid from Ceylon.

Ent. News, XV, Apr., 1904, p. 113.

Describes *Asphilota ceylonica*.

ASHMEAD, WILLIAM H. Descriptions of new Hymenoptera from Japan. I.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc. XII, June, 1904, pp. 65–84.

44 new species are described.

——— Classification of the Chalcid flies, or the superfamily Chalcidoidea, with descriptions of new species in the Carnegie Museum, collected in South America by Herbert H. Smith.

Memoirs Carnegie Museum, I, 1903–4, No. 4, pp. 221–551.

This forms a large quarto volume of 326 pages, with 9 plates, containing 51 figures. It is devoted to the classification of the Chalcid flies, or the superfamily Chalcidoidea, and to describing the new genera and species in the Carnegie Museum, Pittsburg, Pa. It is based principally upon the extensive collection of these insects made by Mr. Herbert H. Smith in South America, although others in the U. S. National Museum are also included. The work is divided into two parts; the first part is devoted to the classification of the Chalcid flies of the world; the second part deals with the South American Chalcidoidea, and contains, besides the descriptions of the new genera and species, a full bibliographical catalogue of all the known species. Dr. Ashmead has been studying these insects for over 25 years and he now recognizes and defines 14 families, namely, Agaonidæ, Torymidæ, Chalcididæ, Eurytomidæ, Perilampidæ, Eucharidæ, Miscogasteridæ, Cleonymidæ, Encyrtidæ, Pteromalidæ, Elasmidæ, Eulophidæ, Trichogrammidæ, and Mymaridæ. Each of these families is taken up in order, fully defined and discussed and separated into subfamilies, tribes, and genera. Full tables for the recognition of the families, subfamilies, tribes, and genera are given, and with the aid of these tables the student should have no difficulty in classifying his material in this great complex. In all 621 genera are recognized as valid and tabulated. In the second part over 300 new species are described from South America. A full bibliography of the genera terminates part first, in which the type of each genus is specified. The last ten pages (pp. 522–532) are devoted to the literature on the subject, arranged in alphabetical order. This is the first complete work ever published on these minute and obscure Hymenoptera, and it is hoped that Dr. Ashmead's work will stimulate and facilitate their study.

——— Three new Ichneumon flies from Russia.

Can. Ent., XXXVI, 1904.

Describes *Pristomerus schreineri*, *Temelucha plutellæ* and *Epiura carpocapsæ*.

——— New generic names in the Chalcidoidea.

ASHMEAD, WILLIAM H.—Continued.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 126.

Gives six new names to genera preoccupied in other departments of zoology.

——— Remarks on honey bees.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash. VI, 1904, pp. 120, 121.

In this paper Dr. Ashmead describes two new genera, *Megapis* and *Micrapis*, and arranges the genuine honey bees under three genera.

BAKER, CARL F. A revision of American Siphonaptera, or fleas, together with a complete list and bibliography of the group.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1361, Feb. 16, 1904, pp. 365–469, pls. 10–26.

BANGS, OUTRAM. Birds and mammals from Honduras.

Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoöl., XXXIX, No. 6, July, 1903, pp. 141–159.

Notes on a collection of birds and mammals collected by W. W. Brown, jr., at Ceiba and Yaruca, Honduras. One hundred and six species of birds are enumerated, of which the following are described as new: *Chloronerpes simplex allophyeus* (p. 145), *Picumnus dimotus* (p. 146), *Dendrornis nana confinis* (p. 150), and *Arremonops conirostris centratus* (p. 156). Notes are offered on eleven species of mammals, one of which is described as new, viz: *Sigmodon hispidus furvus* (p. 158).

BANKS, NATHAN. A list of Arachnida from Haiti, with descriptions of new species.

Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., July, 1903, pp. 340–345, 1 plate.

A list of 66 species from the island, 7 of which are described as new.

——— A new species of *Habrophlebia*.

Ent. News, XIV, Sept., 1903, p. 235, 1 fig.

Description of *H. americana*.

——— Concerning *Gastrophilus epilepsalis* French.

Can. Ent., XXXV, Dec., 1903, p. 333.

Questioning the position of this maggot.

——— Additions to the list of New York Pentatomidæ.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., Dec., 1903, p. 227.

Eight species added to New York list.

——— Some new Neuropteroid insects.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., Dec., 1903, pp. 236–243, 2 figs.

Descriptions of 19 new species and 1 new genus.

——— New species of *Hemerobius*.

Can. Ent., XXXVI, Mar., 1904, pp. 61–63.

Descriptions of 5 new species.

——— The Arachnida of Florida.

Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., Mar., 1904, pp. 120–147, 2 plates.

A list of 279 species, 13 of which are described as new.

BANKS, NATHAN. Four new species of injurious mites.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., Mar., 1904, pp. 53–56, 1 plate.

Describes 2 species injurious to the orange, 1 to cotton, and 1 to the mango.

——— Notes on entomology.

Science (new series), XIX, Mar. 18, 1904, pp. 470–472.

Reviews of several recent papers.

——— Two new species of Hydroptilidæ.

Ent. News, XV, Apr., 1904, p. 116, 2 figs.

Descriptions of 2 new species from near Washington.

——— Neuropteroid insects from New Mexico.

Trans. Am. Ent. Soc., XXX, Apr., 1904, pp. 97–110, 1 plate.

A list of 97 species, from the territory, 12 of them being described as new.

——— Two rare Neuropteroid insects.

Ent. News, XV, May, 1904, p. 171.

Note on *Panorpa rufa* and *Mantispa viridis*.

——— Curious habit of two Ortalid flies.

Ent. News, XV, May, 1904, pp. 171, 172.

Elevation of wings in *Callopistria annulipes*, and *Pseudotephritis vau*.

——— New genera and species of nearctic spiders.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., June, 1904, pp. 109–119, 2 plates.

Decriptions or 4 new genera, and 22 new species.

BARTSCH, PAUL. A new *Scissurella* from Patagonia.

Nautilus, XVII, 1903, pp. 90, 91.

Scissurella dalli Bartsch is described as new.

——— A new landshell from California.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, June 25, 1903, pp. 103, 104.

Sonorella wolcottiona Bartsch is described as new.

——— Notes on the herons of the District of Columbia.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 1, 2, Dec. 9, 1903, pp, 104–111, pls. XXXII–XXXVIII.

This paper deals with the herons found in the District of Columbia, the breeding habits of the Black-crowned Night heron and Green heron. It also announces a scheme for marking young birds with aluminum bands and gives the results of a season's returns.

——— *Limax maximus* L. in California.

Nautilus, XVIII, p. 12, 1904.

The above slug is here recorded from San Bernardino, California.

——— (See also under WILLIAM H. DALL.)

BASSLER, R. S. (See under E. O. ULRICH.)

BEAN, BARTON A. Notice of a collection of fishes made by H. H. Brimley in Cane River and Bollings Creek, North Carolina, with a description of a new species of *Notropis* (*N. brimleyi.*)

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1339, July 6, 1903, pp. 913, 914.

——— Notice of a small collection of fishes, including a rare eel, recently received from H. Maxwell Lefroy, Bridgetown, Barbados, West Indies.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1345, July 10, 1903, pp. 963, 964, 1 fig.

——— A new pelican fish from the Pacific.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 3, 4, Apr. 11, 1904, p. 254.

BEMIS, FLORENCE E. The Aleyrodids, or Mealy-winged flies of California, with references to other American species.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1362, Feb. 16, 1904, pp. 471–537, pls. 27–37.

BENEDICT, JAMES E. Revision of the Crustacea of the genus *Lepidopa.*

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1337, July 6, 1903, pp. 889–895, text figs. 1–8.

Seven species are included in the genus, of which four are described as new. Six species are represented in the collection of the U. S. National Museum.

——— A new genus and two new species of crustaceans of the family Albuneidæ from the Pacific Ocean; with remarks on the probable use of the antennulæ in *Albunea* and *Lepidopa.*

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1367, Feb. 16, 1904, pp. 621–625, text figs. 1–5.

Lophomastix diomedeæ, new genus and species; *Albunea elioti*, new species.

BENJAMIN, MARCUS. John Elfreth Watkins. [A biographical sketch.]

Science (new series), XVIII, No. 453, Sept. 4, 1903, pp. 300, 301.

BOWDISH, B. S. An abnormal bill of *Melanerpes portoricensis.*

Auk, XXI, Jan., 1904, pp. 53–55, pl. XI.

Note on a Porto Rican woodpecker with an abnormal bill.

BRITTON, N. L. (See under JOSEPH N. ROSE.)

BUSCK, AUGUST. Tineid Moths from British Columbia, with descriptions of new species.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1375, May 25, 1904, pp. 745–778.

CASANOWICZ, I. M. Oriental and classical Archeology in the United States National Museum.

Records of the Past, II, No. 12, Dec., 1903. pp. 355–361, 7 illustrations.

A description of the Divisions of Historic Archeology and Historic Religions, their contents, arrangement, and significance.

CAUDELL, ANDREW NELSON. Notes on Orthoptera from Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, and Texas, with description of new species.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1333, July 6, 1903, pp. 775–801, pl. 55.

New species: *Heliastus guanieri, Melanoplus coloradus, M. latifercula, Psinidia sulcifrons* var. *amplicornus.*

——— The Phasmidæ, or Walkingsticks, of the United States.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1335, July 9, 1903, pp. 863–885, pls. 56–59.

New subfamily: Timeminæ; new genera: *Parabacillus, Pseudosermyle, Megaphasma;* new species: *Pseudosermyle truncata, P. banksii, Diapromra arizonensis, Timema californica.*

——— On the systematic position of the Orthopterous genus *Aulocara* Scudder.

Can. Ent., XXXV, 1903, p. 302.

Shows this genus to belong in the sub family Ordipodinæ.

——— Notes on the Orthoptera of Bermuda with a description of a new species, *Gryllus bermudensis.*

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., V, 1903, pp. 329–331.

——— Notes on Phasmidæ.

Ent. News, 1903, pp. 314, 315.

Compares *Parabacillus* Cand. with *Septynia* Pant. Describes immaturity of *Diapturomera arizonensis* Cand. Note on *Timema californica* found on evergreens in California.

——— Two Orthoptera, hitherto unrecorded, from the United States.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1378, June 2, 1904, pp. 949–952, figs. 1–3.

New variety, *Heliastus sumichrasti* var. *subrosea.* This species is recorded from Texas, and a Phasmid, *Haplopus evadne* Westw., from Florida.

——— Orthoptera of the Expedition.

Harriman Alaska Expedition, pp. 117, 118, 1904.

Melanoplus borealis Fieb. recorded.

——— The genus *Cyphoderris.*

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, 1904, pp. 47–53.

New variety: *Cyphoderris monstrosa var. piperi.*

CAUDELL, ANDREW NELSON. A new Forficulid from the Philippines.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, 1904, p. 108.

New species: *Auchenomus minor*.

——— Notes on some Orthoptera from British Columbia.

Ent. News, 1904, pp. 62, 63.

Report on species collected in 1903, by Messrs. Dyar, Currie, and Caudell. No new species.

——— Branched hairs of Hymenoptera.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, pp. 5, 6.

——— An Orthopterous leaf-roller.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, pp. 46–49.

——— The synonomy of *Œdipoda cincta* Thom.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 125.

New species, *Mestabregma thomasi*.

——— Injury by a cricket in the South.

Bull. Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agric., No. 44, 1904, pp. 88, 89.

Anurogryllus antillarum Louss, recorded from southern United States.

——— (See also under HARRISON G. DYAR.)

CHAPMAN, FRANK M. A new grouse from California.

Bull. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist., XX, Apr. 25, 1904, pp. 159–162.

Dendragapus obscurus sierræ (p. 159) is described as new, and its affinities with *D. obscurus* and *D. obscurus fuliginosus* are discussed at some length. A table of measurements of the three forms is given at the end of the paper.

CLARK, AUSTIN H. The black-winged Palm Tanager.

Auk, XX, No. 4, Oct., 1903, pp. 398–402.

Notes on variations of size and color in *Tanagra palmarum melanoptera*.

CLARKE, SAMUEL FESSENDEN. An Alaskan Corymorpha-like hydroid.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1343, July 11, 1903, pp. 953–958, text figs. 1–7.

Redescription of an Alaskan so-called *Rhizonema*, which now seems to belong either to *Corymorpha* or *Lampra*.

COLE, LEON J. Pycnogonida of the west coast of North America.

Harriman Alaska Expedition, X, April, 1904, pp. 249–298, plates XI–XXVI.

The author includes material from the Harriman Expedition, and certain forms from California. Thirteen species are reported upon. A table of distribution is given, also a table of terms used by various authors in describing Pycnogonida. Some of the duplicates will come to the U. S. National Museum.

COQUILLETT, D. W. A new Culicid genus related to *Corethra*.

Can. Ent., XXXV, July, 1903, pp. 189, 190.

The author erects the genus *Sayomyia*, named in honor of Thomas Say, and describes as new *Corethra cinctipes*.

——— *Culex consobrinus* again.

Can. Ent., XXXV, Aug., 1903, p. 218.

Shows that the original description does not apply to any species of *Culex* occurring in this country other than the species identified by Mr. Coquillett as *Consobrinus*.

——— Four new species of *Culex*.

Can. Ent., XXXV, Sept., 1903, pp. 255–257.

Describes as new *Culex cantator*, *C. aurifer*, *C. nanus*, and *C. discolor*.

——— Notes on *Culex kelloggii* Theobald.

Can. Ent., XXXV, Sept., 1903, p. 261.

Cites the above name, *Culex willistoni* Giles and *Culex affinis* Adams as synonyms of *Culex tarsalis* Coquillett.

——— *Eucorethra*, a genus of Culicidæ.

Can. Ent., XXXV, Oct., 1903, p. 272.

Gives a detailed description of this genus and of the species *Eucorethra underwoodi*, both of which had been described a few months earlier, by Prof. W. L. Underwood, from the early stages only.

——— A new *Anopheles* with unspotted wings.

Can. Ent., XXXV, Nov., 1903, p. 310.

Describes *Anopheles barberi* from specimens collected a short distance from Washington, by Mr. H. S. Barber.

——— Several new diptera from North America.

Can. Ent., XXXVI, Jan. 12, 1904, pp. 10–12.

Gives descriptions of five new species.

——— Reports on Californian and Nevadan diptera, by C. F. Baker. (The descriptions of the new genus and species are by D. W. Coquillett.)

Invertebrata Pacifica Diptera, I, Feb. 10, 1904, pp. 17–40.

Describes 1 new genus and 31 new species.

——— The genera of the dipterous family Empididæ. Addenda.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, Feb. 13, 1904, pp. 51, 52.

Gives several corrections to a paper on this subject, published on pages 245–272 of the preceding volume of the Proceedings.

——— A brief history of North American dipterology.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, Feb. 13, 1904, pp. 53–58.

Forms the annual address of the president of the Entomological Society of Washington and gives a short history of this science in North America.

COQUILLETT, D. W. Notes on *Culex nigritulus*.

Ent. News, XV, Feb., 1904, p. 73.

Shows that the form occurring in this country and heretofore referred to this European species is evidently distinct, and proposes the name *Culex salinarius* for our species.

——— Diptera from southern Texas, with descriptions of new species.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, Mar., 1904, pp. 31–35.

Gives a list of 8 previously described species collected by Mr. Charles Schaeffer at Brownsville, Tex., not before reported as occurring in the United States, and describes 9 new species from the same region and obtained by the same collector.

——— A new *Ceratopogon* from Brazil.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, Mar., 1904, pp. 35, 36.

Describes as new *Ceratopogon guttatus*.

——— New diptera from Central America.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, May 18, 1904, pp. 90–98.

Describes 2 new genera and 18 new species.

——— New diptera from India and Australia.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, pp. 137–140.

Describes 5 species as new.

COVILLE, FREDERICK VERNON. [Plants used in Basketry.]

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1902 (1904), pp. 199–214, pls. IV, V, VII–X.

This paper is embraced in a larger work on Basketry by Prof. O. T. Mason.

——— Wokas: a primitive food of the Klamath Indians.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1902 (1904), pp. 725–739, pls. I–XIII.

COVILLE, FREDERICK VERNON, and McDOUGAL, D. T. Desert botanical laboratory of the Carnegie Institution.

Pub. Carnegie Inst., No. 6, *Wash.*, 1903, pp. 1–45, pls. I–XXVIII.

CURRIE, ROLLA PATTESON. An insect-collecting trip to British Columbia.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, No. 1, Jan., 1904, pp. 24–37.

An account of the expedition of Dr. H. G. Dyar, Mr. A. N. Caudell, and the author to the Kootenay District of British Columbia in the summer of 1903, with a general description of the region and of the particular localities where collections were made. The paper is intended as a preface to subsequent detailed reports, by different specialists, upon the various groups of insects represented in the

CURRIE, ROLLA PATTESON. Notes on some Hemerobiidæ from Arizona and California.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, No. 2, Apr., 1904, pp. 79–81.

Treats of a small collection of Hemerobiidæ made by Mr. H. S. Barber during the spring and summer of 1903. Two new species are described, viz, *Hemerobius bistrigatus*, from Little River, Humboldt County, California, and *H. pallescens*, from Fieldbrook, Humboldt County, California.

——— Hemerobiidæ from the Kootenay District of British Columbia.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, No. 2, Apr., 1904, pp. 81–90.

Lists twelve species, collected by Messrs. H. G. Dyar, A. N. Caudell, the author, and others during the summer of 1903. Of these, five are described as new, viz, *Hemerobius dyari*, *H. kokaneeanus*, *H. caudelli*, *H. glacialis*, and *H. kootenayensis*. A key, for aid in determining the British Columbia species of *Hemerobius*, is included.

DALL, WILLIAM HEALEY. Synopsis of the family Astartidæ, with a review of the American species.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1342, July 10, 1903, pp. 933–951, plates LXII, LXIII.

A synopsis, on the lines of the synopsis of the Carditacea, reviewing the classification of the family and the nomenclature of the species found on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of America.

The following new species are named and figured: *Astarte polaris*, *A. alaskensis*, *A. bennetti*, *A. soror*, *A. subaequilatera* var. *whiteavesii*, *A. liogona* and *A. vernicosa*, all from the boreal regions; *Venericardia crassidens* Broderip and Sowerby, is reinstated and figured for the first time. Some new species of *Carditacea*, etc., described in the review of that group are for the first time figured, as follows: *Venericardia armilla*, *V. moniliata*, *V. gouldii*, *V. incisa*, *V. alaskana*, and *V. ventricosa*. The following species are for the first time figured: *Crania patagonica*, *Crassatellites brasiliensis*, *Crenella megas*, *Echinochama californica*, *Limopsis panamensis*, *Cetoconcha scapha*, of Dall, *Astarte compacta* Carpenter, and *Astarte esquimalti* Baird.

In a footnote attention is called to the fact that the name *Miodon* Carpenter, preoccupied by Duméril for a fish, has been replaced by *Miodontiscus* Dall; and for *Acus*, a subgenus of *Terebra*, also preoccupied, the name *Oxymeris* Dall is now proposed.

——— The Grand Gulf formation.

Science (new series), XVIII, No. 446, July 17, 1903, pp. 83–85.

A discussion of the proper application of this name to a geological formation of the Southern States.

DALL, WILLIAM HEALEY. Reports of the Princeton University expeditions to Patagonia, 1896–1899. I.—Narrative and Geography.

Science (new series), XVIII, July 31, 1903, pp. 146, 147.

A review of the volume cited, giving a summary of the results obtained by Mr. J. B. Hatcher in his explorations of Patagonia.

——— Two new mollusks from the west coast of America.

Nautilus, XVII, No. 4, Aug., 1903, pp. 37, 38.

Sigaretus noyesii from Gorgona Islands, Gulf of Panama, and *Tonicia arnheimi* from Narborough Island, Galapagos, are described. The types were donated by Mr. Arnheim to the U. S. National Museum.

——— A new species of *Metzgeria*.

Nautilus, XVII, No. 5, Sept., 1903, pp. 51, 52.

Metzgeria californica is described from the Santa Barbara Channel, California, the only other species known being Norwegian.

——— Note on the family Septidæ.

Nautilus, XVII, No. 5, Sept., 1903, pp. 55, 56.

Discussion of the proper family name for the group formerly called Tritonidæ.

——— A new genus of Trochidæ.

Nautilus, XVII, No. 6, Oct., 1903, pp. 61, 62.

The genus *Stylobates*, founded on the abyssal species *S. æneus* Dall, is described from deep water in the Hawaiian group.

——— Contributions to the Tertiary fauna of Florida, with especial reference to the silex beds of Tampa and the pliocene beds of the Caloosahatchie River, including in many cases a complete revision of the generic groups treated of, and their American Tertiary species. Part VI, concluding the work.

Trans. Wagner Free Inst. Sci. Phila., III, part VI, Oct., 1903, pp. i–xiv, 1219–1654, pl. XLVIII–LX, 4to.

This volume forms the concluding part of the monograph of the Floridian Tertiary begun in 1885 by the author. It comprises not only the description of species, the types of which are preserved in the U. S. National Museum, and of which three or four thousand are enumerated, and eight hundred and sixty new forms described, among mollusks and Brachiopods, but also a general discussion (pp. 1541 to 1620, with two tables showing numerically and graphically the relations of the fauna, which discussion was also issued as a separate pamphlet, with title and covers) of the Tertiary geology of southeastern North America, with notes on each separately recognized formation, including lists of the species known from each horizon. In the course of the work a thorough discussion of many of the families or genera and their nomenclature is given, bringing the latter up to date as far as practicable; while the general classification of the bivalves is reviewed and amended. A geological map of Florida from the reconnaissance work of the author and others who have assisted in the work is included, while all the new and many doubtful or unfigured species have been illustrated.

DALL, WILLIAM HEALEY—Continued.

The following groups, of the value of genera, subgenera, or sections, appear as new in the present part of the work: *Allogramma, Aporema, Bowdenia, Chlidonophora, Climacia, Heteroclidus, Parmulina, Pompholigina, Profischeria, Samarangia.*

The following species are described as new and figured in the present part of the work: *Anomalocardia bowdeniana, A. caloosana, A. chipolana, A. dupliniana, Arca millifila, Argyrotheca schucherti, Aspella senex, Asturte americana, A. calliglypta, A. floridana, A. obesa, A. opulentora, A. parma, A. vaginulata, A. wagneri, Callocardia gatunensis, C. multifilosa, C. sincera, Cardita catharia, C. guppyi, C. prestoni, C. tegea, C. vaughani, Carditopsis bernardi, Chama caloosana, C. chipolana, C. draconis, C. lyelli, C. tampaënsis, Chione ballista, C. chipolana, C. craspedonia, C. erosa, C. glyptocyma, C. hendersonii, C. rhodia, C. spada, C. ulocyma, C. victoria, C. xesta, Chiton burnsii, Clementia grayi, Codakia chipolana, C. erosa, C. magnoliana, C. pertenera, C. spinulosa, C. vendryesi, Columbella cosmia, Coralliophaga elegantula, Corbis claibornensis, Crassatellites acutus, C. bowdenensis, C. chipolanus, C. cyclopterus, C. duplinianus, C. jamaicensis, C. meridionalis, C. tanicus, C. triangulatus, Crepidula æsop, Cuspidaria craspedonia, C. distira, Cyathodonta guadalupensis, C. spenceri, C. vicksburgiana, Cyclinella gatunensis, Cyrena dupliniana, Cythara metria, C. micromeris, Cytherea cæsarina, C. glyptoconcha, C. shepardi, C. tarquinia, C. ucuttana, C. willcoxi, Cytheriopsis alumensis, Dosinia chipolana, D. liogona, Echinochama antiquata, E. californica, Erycinella bernardi, Gafrarium altum, G. erosum, Gemma magna, G. trigona, G. virginiana, Glyphostoma scoptes, Goodallia americana, Lirodiscus wailesii, Lucina corpulenta, L. janus, L. santarosana, Lyonsia acuta, Macrocallista acuminata, Myrtæa curta, M. furcata, M. limoniana, M. vermiculata, Neritina merida, Neverita coënsis, Oliva liodes, O. martensi, Olivella cutacta, Pandora arctica, P. dodona, P. lata, Phacoides actinus, P. calhounensis, P. caloosaënsis, P. caloosana, P. chipolanus, P. domingensis, P. glenni, P. hamatus, P. heracleus, P. intensus, P. ocalanus, P. piluliformis, P. plesiophilus, P. podagrinus, P. prunus, P. quadricostatus, P. recurrens, P. sphæriolus, P. tithonis, P. tuomeyi, P. waccamawensis, P. wacissanus P. whitfieldi, Pitaria calcanea, P. filosina, P. floridana, P. hillii, P. opisthogrammata, P. planivicta, Platidia marylandica, Pleurodesma floridana, Poromya jamaicensis, Pterorhytis fluviana, Rhynchonella holmesii, R. salpinx, Solenosteira vaughani, Spheniopsis americana, Submarginula reti-*

DALL, WILLIAM HEALEY—Continued.

porosa, Teinostoma calliglyptum, Thracia harrisi, Tivela jamaicensis, Transennella caloosana, T. carolinensis, T. chipolana, T. santarosana, T. utica, Velorita floridana, Venericardia abbreviata, V. acaris, V. bulla, V. californica, V. carsonensis, V. greggiana, V. hadra, V. himerta, V. nasuta, V. præcisa, V. scitula, V. simplex, V. tellia, V. tripla, V. vicksburgiana, V. willcoxensis, Venus alba, V. langdoni, V. nucea, V. quadrata, V. radiata, V. texana, Verticordia bowdenensis, V. cossmanni, V. jamaicensis.

——— Mrs. Henrietta H. T. Wolcott.

Nautilus, XVII, No. 7, Nov., 1903, pp. 83, 84.

Obituary notice of an excellent field naturalist, friend and generous contributor to the U. S. National Museum for many years.

——— Diagnoses of new species of mollusks from the Santa Barbara channel, California.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Dec. 31, 1903, pp. 171–176.

Actæon painei, Clathurella lowei, Mangilia fancheræ, Mitra lowei, M. dolorosa, Murex painei, Lunatia draconis, Macromphalina californica, Scala sawinæ, and *Ischnochiton biarcuatus* are described as new. The types are in the U. S. National Museum.

——— Rectifications et questions de nomenclature.

Revue critique de Paléozoologie, VII, p. 180, Juillet, 1903.

Reclamation for the name of *Dimya*, which had been rejected for insufficient reason.

——— *Gundlachia and Ancylus.*

Nautilus, XVII, No. 9, Jan., 1904, pp. 97, 98.

A discussion as to the relations between the two genera.

——— Marcus Baker.

Nat. Geograph. Mag., XV, No. 1, Jan., 1904, pp. 41–43, with portrait.

Obituary notice of Mr. Baker, who for a long time was associated with Dr. Dall in Alaska, and who, in the intervals of other work, found time to collect material, anthropological and biological, for the U. S. National Museum.

——— Notes on the nomenclature of the Pupacea and associated forms.

Nautilus, XVII, No. 10, Feb., 1904, pp. 114–116.

Corrections to current usage in the nomenclature of this group are pointed out.

——— On the geology of the Hawaiian Islands.

Am. Journ. Sci. (fourth series), XVII, No. 98, Feb., 1904, p. 177.

Notes on the geology of Diamond Head, Oahu, based on material a portion of which is in the U. S. National Museum.

DALL, WILLIAM HEALEY. Charles Emerson Beecher.

Science (new series), XIX, Mar., 18, 1904, pp. 453–455.

Obituary notice of the late Dr. Beecher.

——— Neozoic invertebrate fossils, a report on collections made by the expedition.

Harriman Alaska Expedition, IV, Mar., 1904, pp. 99–122, pls. IX, X.

A report on fossils collected by the expedition in Alaska: 1st, Eocene fossils from Alaska Peninsula and vicinity, chiefly by Mr. Chas. Palache; 2d, Miocene fossils from the Shumagin Islands; 3d, Pleistocene fossils from Douglas Island. The types are in the U. S. National Museum. The Eocene species are the first Eocene fossils described from Alaska. The following are described and figured as new: *Cliona alaskana, Yoldia palachei, Y. emersonii, Y. breweri, Modiolus harrimani, M. alaskanus, Macrocallista gilberti, Spisula callistæformis, Mesodesma alaskensis, Crepidula precursor, Margarites peninsularis;* and from the Miocene: *Papyridea harrimani, Saxidomus popofianus, Callocardia kincaidii, Dosinia alaskana, Protothaca grewingkii, Macoma grewingkii, Trochita alaskana*, and *Crepidula ungana.*

——— Reports of the Belgian Antarctic Expedition.

Science (new series), XIX, No. 486, Apr. 22, 1904, pp. 656–659.

Summary of the results obtained on the expedition on the *Belgica* in the antarctic regions.

——— A singular Eocene Turbinella.

Nautilus, XVIII, No. 1, May, 1904, pp. 9, 10.

The subgenus *Psilocochlis* is proposed for a new species *Turbinella McCallie* from the Eocene of Georgia. The types are in the U. S. National Museum.

——— Namatogæan or Epigæan.

Science (new series), XIX, No. 494, June 17, 1904, p. 926.

Suggestions for a term to take the place of the phrase "land and fresh water" in ecological discussions of animal and plant distribution.

DALL, WILLIAM HEALEY, and BARTSCH, PAUL. Pyramidellidæ.

Memoirs Cal. Acad. Sci. III, 1903, pp. 269–285, pl I–II, and IV, fig. 14.

This is a contribution to the volume on the Paleontology of San Pedro by Ralph Arnold (q. v.). The specimens upon which it is based are in the collection of the U. S. National Museum. *Ivara*, subgenus of *Odostomia*, is described. The following new species are described and figured:

DALL, WILLIAM HEALEY, and BARTSCH, PAUL—Continued.

Turbonilla stearnsii, T. pentalopha, T. auricoma, T. latefundia, T. lowei, and var. *pedroana, T. arnoldi, T. adleri; Odostomia stearnsii, O. diegensis, O. grammatospira;* and *O.* (*Ivara*) *terricula*, and a number of other old species are rediagnosed and figured.

——— Synopsis of the genera, subgenera, and sections of the family Pyramidellidæ.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVII, Feb. 5, 1904, pp. 1–16.

A synopsis of the revised classification due to several years' investigation into the character and history of the groups comprising this family.

Under *Pyramidella* the following new names are proposed: Subg. *Milda*, subg. *Voluspa*, subg. *Callolongchæus*, subg. *Ulfa*, subg. *Tropæas*, subg. *Vagna*, sect. *Cossmannica*, subg. *Orinella*, subg. *Sulcorinella*, subg. *Iphiana*, subg. *Syrnolina*. Under *Turbonilla* come, as new, *Saccoina, Visma, Lancella, Asmunda*, and *Baldra*, subgenera. Under *Odostomia; Vilia, Folinella, Besla, Egila, Haldra, Ividia, Evalina, Heida*, and *Lysacme*, subgenera, and *Stomega*, new section. *Pyramidella dodona Turbonilla archeri, Odostomia pilsbryi*, and *O. americana* are species described as new.

——— Notes on the genus *Ampullaria*.

Journ. Conchology, XI, No. 2, Feb., 1904, pp. 50–55.

History of the names applied to this shell and a revision of the classification of the whole group to which it belongs. The sectional name *Limnopomus* is proposed for *Ampullaria columellaris* Gould, the type of which is in the National Museum.

——— A new species of *Periploma* from California.

Nautilus, XVII, No. 11, Mar., 1904, pp. 122, 123.

Periploma sulcata from San Pedro is described and the sectional name *Halistrepta* proposed for it.

DAVENPORT, CHARLES B. Report on the fresh-water bryozoa of the United States.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1355, Jan. 22, 1904, pp. 211–221, pl. VI.

Based chiefly on material collected in 1898 and 1899 by the laboratory of the U. S. Fish Commission at Put-in-Bay, Ohio. The author gives a synoptic key to species, a chapter on ecology and one on methods of preserving, followed by a list of all species found in the United States.

Part of the material is in the U. S. National Museum.

DYAR, HARRISON G. Lepidoptera in British Columbia.

Can. Ent., XXXV, 1903, p. 175.

——— The life history of *Mamestra landabilis*, Guin.

Can. Ent., XXXV, 1903, pp. 273, 274.

——— Book Notice: Smith's check list of the Lepidoptera of Boreal America.

Can. Ent., XXXV, 1903, pp. 321, 322.

——— Life histories of North American Geometridæ. XLII.

Psyche, X, 1903, pp. 168, 169.

——— Life histories of the North American Geometridæ. XLIII–LII.

Psyche, X, 1903, pp. 190–200.

——— The Lepidoptera of the Kootenay District of British Columbia.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1376, June 7, 1904, pp. 779–938.

——— New Noctuidæ from British Columbia.

Can. Ent., XXXVI, 1904, pp. 29–33.

——— *Tæniocampa communis.*

Can. Ent., XXXVI, 1904, p. 60.

——— Correction of name.

Can. Ent., XXXVI, 1904, p. 102.

——— New North American species of Lepidoptera and a new Limacodid larva.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, 1904, pp. 39–44.

——— New Lepidoptera from the United States.

Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, 1904, pp. 105–108.

——— Life histories of North American Geometridæ. LIII.

Psyche, XI, 1904, p. 29.

——— Life histories of North American Geometridæ. LIV.

Psyche, XI, 1904, p. 64.

——— Description of the larva of *Ethuria zelleriella* Chambers.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 3.

——— Description of the larva of *Litodonta hydromeli* Harvey.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 3.

——— Note on the distribution of the red forms of Diacrisia.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 18.

——— A lepidopteron parasitic upon Fulgoridae in Japan.

Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 19.

New species, *Epipyrops nawai.*

DYAR, HARRISON G. *Halesidota maculata* Harris and its varieties.
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 19.

——— The larvæ of the mosquitoes *Megarhinus retilus* Coquillett and *M. portoricensis* Roeder.
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 20.

——— Notes on the mosquitoes of British Columbia.
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 27.

——— A new variety of the Noctuid *Exyra semicrocea* Guenée (*Exyra semicrocea*, variety *hubbardiana*, n. var.).
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, pp. 59, 60.

——— A new genus and species of Tortricidæ.
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 60.

——— Additions to the list of North American Lepidoptera, No. 1.
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, pp. 62–65.

——— Note on the larva of an Hawaiian Pyralid (*Emiodes accepta* Butler).
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 65.

——— Note on the larva of *Therina somisiaria* Hulst.
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 76.

——— Note on the larva of *Melanchroia geometroides* Walker.
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 77.

——— Note on the genus *Leusophobetron* Dyar.
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 77.

——— Additions to the list of North American Lepidoptera, No. 2.
Proc. Ent. Soc. Wash., VI, 1904, p. 103.

——— New North American species of *Scoparia* Haworth.
Ent. News, XV, 1904, p. 71.

——— Life history of *Culex cantans* Meigen.
Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, 1904, pp. 36–38.

——— Life history of *Culex varipalpus*.
Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, 1904, pp. 90–92.

DYAR, HARRISON G., and CAUDELL, ANDREW N. The types of genera.
Journ. N. Y. Ent. Soc., XII, 1904, pp. 120–122.
A discussion of the first species as the type of a genus.

EIGENMANN, CARL H. New genera of South American fresh-water fishes and new names for some old genera.
Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 1, 2, Dec. 9, 1903, pp. 144–148.

FEWKES, J. WALTER. Precolumbian West Indian amulets.
Am. Anthropologist (new series), V, No. 4 Oct.–Dec., 1903, pp. 679–691, pl. LII–LIV.
A paper devoted to the description and illustration of small images carved from stone, shell, and bone, and perforated for suspension from the person. The author's notes are derived from a study of the subject on the spot.

——— Preliminary report on an archeological trip to the West Indies.
Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, pts. 1, 2, Dec. 9, 1903, pp. 112–133, pls. XXXIX–XLVIII.
The archeological results of a former visit to Porto Rico were so promising that in November Doctor Fewkes returned to the island and continued his survey until the close of May, 1903. The present paper gives the results of this winter's exploration.

FISHER, WALTER K. Birds of Laysan and the Leeward Islands, Hawaiian group.
Bull. U. S. Fish Com. for 1903, pp. 1–39 pls. 1–10, 4 text figs., 1 diagram.
An excellent account of the birds (27 species) met with on these islands during the cruise of the *Albatross* in 1902. The plates accompanying the paper illustrate many interesting phases of bird-life as seen on Laysan.

FLINT, JAMES M. Chinese medicine.
Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 1, 2, Jan. 7, 1904, pp. 180–182.
Doctor Flint in this paper traces the origin of Chinese medicine to the year 2700 B. C., under the Emperor Shen-nung. The theories of disease and the method of treatment are set forth.

FOWLER, HENRY W. (See under D. S. JORDAN.)

GILBERT, CHARLES H., and STARKS, EDWIN CHAPIN. Memoirs | of the | California Academy of Sciences | Volume IV | The Fishes of Panama Bay | By | Charles H. Gilbert and Edwin C. Starks | Issued February 6, 1904 | San Francisco | Published by the Academy | 1904. |
4to, pp. 1–304, pls. I–XXXIII.

GILL, THEODORE. Note on the fish genera named *Macrodon*.
Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1349, July 6, 1903, pp. 1015, 1016.
The name *Macrodon* can not be used for the *Trahiras* of the South American rivers, as has been done since 1842, inasmuch as it had been taken in 1822 by H. R. Schinz for the genus called *Ancylodon* by Cuvier. *Macrodon* Schinz must be adopted in place of *Ancylodon* Cuvier (not Illiger 1811), and a new name (*Hoplias*) is proposed as a substitute for the fish genus of Müller.

GILL, THEODORE. On the relations of the fishes of the family Lamprididæ or Opahs.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1340, July 7, 1903, pp. 915–924, figs. 1–3.

The genus *Lampris* had been associated with various fishes, mostly Scombroidean, but in 1903 Boulenger, having homologized some of the bones of the shoulder girdle in a peculiar way, considered it as the representative of an independent group (Selenichthyes) of a new suborder (Catosteomi) which further included the Hemibranchii and Lophobranchii. The reasons given for this classification are traversed, the bones called coracoid and infraclavicle being homologized with the fourth actinost and hypocoracoid, and the existence of an independent infraclavicle is denied. There is consequently no reason for the association of *Lampris* with the Hemibranchii and Lophobranchii. The affinities are rather with the Scombroideans, as formerly claimed, but the family is isolated as the representative of an independent superfamily—Lampridoidea. A diagnosis of the superfamily and synonyms of the family name are added.

——— On some neglected genera of fishes.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1344, July 11, 1903, pp. 959–962.

An analysis of an article published in 1790 by H. F. Linck (Versuch einer Eintheilung der Fische nach den Zähnen) is given, and it is shown that "of the nine new generic names proposed by Linck, three are well entitled to adoption from him—*Mustelus*, *Pristis*, and *Mola*. The others do not seem to be presented in such form as to demand recognition."

——— On some fish genera of the first edition of Cuvier's Règne Animal and Oken's Names.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1346, July 11, 1903, pp. 965–967.

It is remarked that "in the first edition of the Règne Animal (1817) Cuvier introduced many new genera or subgenera, but most of them were named only in French guise. Consequently many naturalists have refused to accept them." In an entirely overlooked summary, also published in 1817, L. Oken gave Latin or Latinized names and many (18) date from his commentary.

——— O-words in the "New English Dictionary." [I.]

Notes and Queries (9), XII, Aug. 29, 1903, pp. 165, 166.

Comments on the section *On-Out* of the dictionary, suggesting that quotations for words "should be brought up more nearly to date," some in daily use being "illustrated by quotations twenty to forty or more years behind time." A number such are named. *Oolakan*, *Ophidia*, *Orator*, *Orbitolite*, *Ornithodelphia*, and *Ortolan*, words imperfectly treated in

GILL, THEODORE—Continued.

the dictionary, are elucidated. It is suggested that "surely the word (ornithology) must have been used before [1678]."

——— The fishes of the African family Kneriidæ.

Science (new series), XVIII, No. 454, Sept. 11, 1903, pp. 338, 339.

Attention is called to the agreement in many respects between the descriptions of two African genera—*Kneria*, described by Steindachner in 1866, and *Cromeria*, described by Boulenger in 1901. The discrepancies, which are marked, it is suggested, may perhaps be due to age, and possibly *Cromeria* (known only from specimens about thirty millimeters long) may be the young of *Kneria*. The affinity of the family is doubtful, and it appears to be entitled to distinction as a peculiar superfamily, Kneriordea. It may be referred to the group Haplomi or perhaps the Iniomi.

——— A little-known Devil-fish.

Science (new series), XVIII, No, 458, Oct. 9, 1903, p. 473.

Attention is directed to "Description of a new Ceratopterine Eagle-ray from Jamaica," published by Richard Hill in 1802, and the suggestion is made that the species (*Cephaloptera massenoidea*) is the same as the *Ceratobatis robertsii* described by Boulenger in 1897.

——— American fishes | A popular treatise | upon the | game and food fishes of North | America | with especial reference to habits and | methods of capture | By | G. Brown Goode, Ph. D., LL. D. | [List of titles] New edition | completely revised and largely extended by | TheodoreGill, A. M., M. D., Ph. D., LL. D. | [List of titles] With numerous illustrations, including a series | of new color plates. | Boston | Dana Estes & Company | Publishers |

8vo., pp. I–LXVIII, 1–562, 6 colored pls. and portrait. (Published Oct. 16, 1903.)

——— O-words in the "New English Dictionary." [II.]

Notes and Queries (9), XII Oct. 24, 1903, pp. 330, 331.

An answer to Doctor Murray's defense of the dictionary (o. c., 209, 210) and claim that it "does indeed give the *earliest* quotation (known to us at the time) for every word and sense," etc., and that when the writer "can cite an earlier instance of the word ornithology than can be given in the 'dictionary,' it will be time to write about it."

Improper usage of the word *Oology* is shown, and earlier instances of the use of the words *Ophidia* (1802), *Ophidian*, *a.* (1813), *Ophidian*, *n.* (1813), and *Ophiology* (1817) are adduced. As

GILL, THEODORE—Continued.

examples of words "erroneously defined and illustrations [that] do not illustrate," *Ophidium* and *Ophidioid* are noted and *Ophidioid* redefined.

——— "Eulachon" and its variants.

Notes and Queries (9), XII, Dec. 5, 1903, pp. 444, 445.

In answer to a request for information, the variants of the name of the Candle-fish of Washington and British Columbia (*Thaleichthys pacificus*) are enumerated and in some instances commented on. "In chronological sequence of publication they are Ulken (Gass, 1807), Olthen (Lewis and Clark, 1814), Uthlecan (Irving, 1836), Oulachan (Richardson, 1836), Eulachon (Lord, 1866), Oulacon (Scammon, 1874), Hoolakin (J. and G., 1881), Oolachan (Nature, 1881), Oolackan (Baillie-Grohman, 1886), Oulachon (Century Dict., 1890), Oolakan (N. E. D. 1903).

——— A remarkable genus of fishes—the Umbras.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls. XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 3, 4, Apr. 11, 1904, pp. 295–305, with 5 figs.

A summary is given of (1) the bibliographical history of the genus, followed by (2) a notice of its place in the system; (3) an account of the habits of the species is the most prominent feature; (4) the distinctive characters of the three species, and (5) a notice of the desiderata to complete the biographies.

——— The Encyclopædia Americana on Ichthyology.

Science (new series), XIX, No. 486, Apr. 22, 1904, pp. 675, 676.

Attention is called to the careless editorial handling of an article on "Ichthyology" by Dr. D. S. Jordan, and the misnaming of many (twelve) figures. The act is declared to be a wrong to the public as well as author of the article; the latter should be relieved of responsibility for the errors noted.

——— Vernacular names of animals. [A notice of Nemnich's "Allgemeines Polyglotten Lexicon der Naturgeschichte."]

Am. Naturalist (XXXVIII), No. 447, March, 1904 (published May 3, 1904), pp. 241, 242.

——— "Horses" not horses.

Science (new series), XIX, No. 488, May 6, 1904, pp. 737, 738.

A notice of a number of errors in a little book entitled "The Tree Dwellers," in which the assumption is made that the ancestors of the horses had five toes and lived partly in trees. The error of such an assumption is pointed out and protest is made against the use of the word horse for the ancient forms, which really belonged to a different family from the recent horses. It should certainly not be used for the eocene many toed form named *Hyracotherium*, which is differentiated "as the representative of a peculiar family—the Hyracotheriids." Objection is also made "to the assumption that the early representatives of the equine phylum were striped like a zebra. * * * The evidence, such as it is, is against the assumption."

GILL, THEODORE—Continued.

——— Non-education of the young by parents.

Science (new series), XIX, No. 492, June 3, 1904, pp. 861, 862.

In connection with pending discussions, attention is called to the "annual fishes" of the family of Gobies known as *Aphya pellucida* and *Crystallogabius nilssonii*. The parents die when the breeding season is over, and consequently the young have no care takers or exemplars. An analogous instance is furnished by the salmons of the genus *Oncorhynchus*, the parents dying soon after their procreative duties have been discharged. As all the parents die, "the young can not have the benefit of parental instruction or of learning through association with their elders."

——— The name mammal and the idea expressed.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst., 1903 (1904), pp. 537–544.

The main portion of "The story of a name—mammals," published by the author in the Popular Science Monthly for September, 1902, are embodied in the present article, but much additional matter and literary illustrations are intercalated and added.

GIRTY, GEORGE H. *Triticites*, a new genus of Carboniferous foraminifers.

Am. Journ. Sci., XVII, Mar., 1904, pp. 234–240, text figures.

Calls attention to the American so-called *Fusulina*, that they have not the interior structure of the Russian genus, and therefore proposes *Triticites* for the American form passing as *Fusulina cylindrica*. This should be called *Triticites secalicus* Say.

——— New molluscan genera from the Carboniferous.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1372, June 1, 1904, pp. 721–736, pls. 45–47.

This paper defines the new genera *Limipecten*, *Pleurophorella*, and *Clavulites*. Also the new species *L. texanus*, *L. texanus grandicostatus*, *P. papillosa*, and *C. howardensis*. The genus *Orthotetes* Fischer de Waldheim proves to be the same structurally as Waagen's later proposed *Derbya*, and the latter is, therefore, a synonym. For Waagen's redefinition and misinterpretation of *Orthothetes*, the present author proposes the new name *Schuchertella*, using as his genotype *Streptorhynchus lens* White.

GRABAU, AMADEUS W. Phylogeny of *Fusus* and its allies.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLIV, 1904, pp. 1–192, pls. I–XVIII, and text figs.

As the title indicates, this important work treats of the phylogeny of *Fusus* and its allies. New genera described: *Falsifusus*, *Fulgurofusus*, *Heilprinia*, *Clavellofusus*, *Rhopalithes*, and *Cosmolithes*. Of new species and new varieties, many are described.

HOLMES, WILLIAM H. Fossil human remains found near Lansing, Kansas.[a]

Am. Anthropologist (new series), IV, No. 4, Oct.–Dec., 1902, pp. 743–752, 2 pls., 2 text figs.

——— Traces of aboriginal operations in an iron mine near Leslie, Missouri.

Am. Anthropologist (new series), V, No. 3, July–Sept., 1903, pp. 503–507, 1 pl., 2 text figs.

——— Shell ornaments from Kentucky and Mexico.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 1, 2, Dec. 9, 1903, pp. 97–99, pls. XXIX, XXX, 1 text fig.

——— Report on the Department of Anthropology for the year 1900–1901.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1901 (1903), pp. 51–61.

——— Flint implements and fossil remains from a sulphur spring at Afton, Indian Territory.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1901 (1903), pp. 233–252, pls. 1–26.

——— Classification and arrangement of the exhibits of an anthropological museum.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1901 (1903), pp. 253–278, pl. 1.

——— Report on the Department of Anthropology for the year 1901–1902.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1902 (1903), pp. 53–58.

——— Aboriginal pottery of the Eastern United States.

20th Ann. Rep. Bureau Am. Ethnology, 1898–99 (1903), pp. 1–201, 177 pls., 79 text figs.

——— (See also under FREDERICK W. TRUE.)

HOUGH, WALTER. Archeological field work in northeastern Arizona. The Museum-Gates Expedition of 1901.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1901 (1903), pp. 279–358, pls. 1–101.

HOUGH, WALTER—Continued.

A report on the extensive excavation made in the ancient pueblo ruins of northeastern Arizona during the summer of 1901, with descriptions and discussion of the artefacts collected.

HOWARD, LELAND O. The shade trees of Washington.

The Capital, Oct. 10, 1903, pp. 14, 15. Portrait.

An account of Washington shade trees and their management, with suggested improvements, mainly from the standpoint of insect damage

——— Yellow fever and mosquitoes.

Century Magazine, LXVI, No. 6, Oct., 1903, pp. 851–857, 10 figs., 1 map.

——— Hydrocyanic acid gas against household insects.

Public Health Reports, Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service, XVIII, No. 46, Washington, Nov. 13, 1903, pp. 1977–1982.

——— The Mexican cotton boll weevil.

Science (new series), XVIII, No. 465, Nov. 27, 1903, p. 693.

——— Concerning the geographic distribution of the yellow-fever mosquito.

Public Health Reports, Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service, XVIII, No. 46, Nov., 1903, pp. 1–7, 1 map.

——— The Moth Book. Review of W. J. Holland's work of this title.

Science (new series), XIX, No. 474, Jan 29, 1904, pp. 188, 189.

——— Sending insects through the mails.

Ent. News, XV, No. 1, Jan., 1904, pp. 25, 26.

An account of a revision of the U. S. Postal Regulations.

——— The Mexican cotton boll weevil.

Am. Review of Reviews, XXIX, No. 169, Feb. 1, 1904, pp. 188–191, 4 figs.

——— The Mexican cotton boll weevil.

Youths' Companion, Feb. 4, 1904, pp. 55, 56, 5 figs.

——— A monograph of the Culicidæ of the world. A review of Volume III of F. V. Theobald's work of this title.

Science (new series), XIX, No. 478, Feb. 26, 1904, pp. 333, 334.

——— [Review of] Monograph of the British Coccidæ, by Robert Newstead.

Am. Journ. Sci., XVII, Feb., 1904, pp. 81, 82.

——— The transmission of yellow fever by mosquitoes.

34th Ann. Rep. Ent. Soc. Ontario, Mar. 10, 1904, pp. 26–30.

[a] This title was not received in time to permit of its insertion in the Bibliography for the preceding year.

HOWARD, LELAND O. Recent work in American economic entomology.

34th Ann. Rep. Ent. Soc. Ontario, Mar. 10, 1904, pp. 38–40.

——— Some miscellaneous results of the work of the Division of Entomology.

Bull. Div. Ent., U. S. Dept. Agric., No. 44, Apr. 15, 1904.

These are all unsigned notes and articles.

——— [Review of] Monograph of the British Tyroglyphidæ, by A. D. Michael.

Am. Journ. Sci., XVII, May, 1904, pp. 407, 408.

——— The United States Department of Agriculture and Silk Culture.

Yearbook U. S. Dept. Agric., 1903, pp. 137–148, 5 plates.

(Author's extras published June 9, 1904.)

HRDLIČKA, ALEŠ. Anomalous articulation and fusion of the atlas with the occipital bone. Abstract.

Washington Medical Annals, III, No. 1, Mar., 1904, pp. [1], [2].

——— Further instances of parietal division.

Am. Naturalist, XXXVIII, No. 448, Apr., 1904, pp. 301–309, 4 figs.

——— Further instances of molar division.

Am. Naturalist, XXXVIII, No. 449, May, 1904, pp. 361–366, 5 figs.

HYATT, ALPHEUS. Pseudoceratites of the Cretaceous.

Monograph U. S. Geol. Surv., XLIV, 1903, pp. 1–351, pls. 1–47.

This important monograph treats of a large group of ammonites, the Pseudoceratites, from all parts of the world. Quite a number of the species described and figured are now in the U. S. National Museum collection.

JENINGS, FOSTER H. Korean headdresses in the National Museum.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 1, 2, Jan. 7, 1904, pp. 149–167, figs. 3–28.

This young author, whose premature death is greatly deplored, finding that the hat is connected with rank and custom to a large extent in Korea, brought together in a series of drawings the various types of headgear, showing their significance and varieties.

JORDAN, DAVID STARR, and FOWLER, HENRY W. A review of the Cyprinoid fishes of Japan.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1334, July 6, 1903, pp. 811–862, figs. 1–8.

JORDAN, DAVID STARR, and FOWLER, HENRY W. A review of the Siluroid fishes or catfishes of Japan.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1338, July 7, 1903, pp. 897–911, figs. 1, 2.

JORDAN, DAVID S., and SNYDER, JOHN O. On the species of White Chimæra from Japan.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1356, Jan. 23, 1904, pp. 223–226, figs. 1, 2.

——— On a collection of fishes made by Mr. Alan Owston in the deep waters of Japan.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 3, 4, Apr. 11, 1904, pp. 230–240.

——— Notes on collections of fishes from Oahu Island and Laysan Island, Hawaii, with descriptions of four new species.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1377, June 2, 1904, pp. 939–948.

JORDAN, DAVID S., and STARKS, EDWIN CHAPIN. A review of the fishes of Japan belonging to the family of Hexagrammidæ.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1348, July 15, 1903, pp. 1003, 1013, figs. 1–3.

——— A review of the Scorpænoid fishes of Japan.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1351, Jan. 22, 1904, pp. 91–175, pls. 1, 2, text figs. 1–21.

——— A review of the Cottidæ or Sculpins found in the waters of Japan.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1358, Jan. 28, 1904, pp. 231–335, figs. 1–43.

——— A review of the Japanese fishes of the family of Agonidæ.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1365, Feb. 23, 1904, pp. 575–599, figs. 1–13.

——— Description of a new Cyprinoid fish, *Hemibarbus joiteni*, from the Pei Ho, Tientsin, China.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 3, 4, Apr. 11, 1904, pp. 241, 242.

——— *Schmidtina*, a genus of Japanese sculpins.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1381, June 27, 1904, p. 961.

LUCAS, FREDERIC A. A new batrachian and a new reptile from the Trias of Arizona.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1353, Jan. 22, 1904, pp. 193–195, pls. 3, 4.

Describes *Metoposaurus fraasi*, a new species of labyrinthodont, and *Placerias hesternus*, a new genus and species of large cotylosaurian reptiles.

LUCAS, FREDERIC A. The Dinosaur *Trachodon annectens*.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 3, 4, Apr. 11, 1904, pp. 317-320, pls. LXXII-LXXIII, figs. 40-43.

A somewhat popular account of this dinosaur, its relationships and habits, and of the skeleton on exhibition in the U. S. National Museum.

LYON, MARCUS WARD, Jr. Classification of the hares and their allies.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls. XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 3, 4, June 15, 1904, pp. 321-447, pls. LXXIV-C.

A revision of the genera and subgenera of the families Leporidæ and Ochotonidæ, based on their osteological and dental characters. New genera; *Pronolagus* (p. 416) and *Pentalagus* (p. 428); new subgenera, *Pœcilolagus* (p. 395), new subgenus of *Lepus*, and *Conothoa* (p. 438), new subgenus of *Ochotona*.

McDOUGAL, D. T. (See under Frederick Vernon Coville.)

McGREGOR, RICHARD C. Birds from Benguet province, Luzon, and from the islands of Lubang, Mindoro, Cuyo, and Cagayancillo.

Bull. Philippine Museum, No. 3, Jan. 30, 1904, pp. 1-16.

Notes on birds collected on the above-named islands for the Philippine Museum. The notes are arranged under the following headings: Introductory note; Zoographical notes; Undescribed plumages and notes on the rarer species; New locaties for known species; and species from Irisan, Benguet Province, Luzon.

——— The birds of Calayan and Fuga, Babuyan group.

Bull. Philippine Museum, No. 4, May 15, 1904, pp. 1-34, pls. 1-5.

An annotated list of the species collected on the islands of Calayan and Fuga for the Philippine Museum. The following are described as new: *Turnix worcesteri* (p. 8), *Macropygia phœa* (p. 9), *Otus cuyensis* (p. 17), *Otus calayensis* (p. 18), *Eudynamis frater* (p. 21), *Zosterops flavissima* (p. 26), and *Hyloterpe fallax* (p. 27).

MARSHALL, WILLIAM B. James Smithson.

Am. Journ. Pharmacy, LXXVI, No. 4, Apr., 1904, pp. 162-171.

A sketch of the life of the founder of the Smithsonian Institution.

MASON, OTIS TUFTON. Aboriginal American Basketry: Studies in a textile art without machinery.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1902 (1904), pp. 171-548, pls. 1-248.

MASON, OTIS TUFTON—Continued.

The design of this work is to study out the processes of weaving and other forms of textile work done by hand in America by the aboriginal tribes. These processes antedate machinery, and some of the primitive devices connected with the Indian handwork led up to the first looms. The materials for basket work are enumerated, the processes of manufacture described and illustrated, and the subject of ornamentation, in form and design, discussed. Symbolism is shown to have followed the other arts in motives, but to have taken on special details by reason of technic. The many uses of basketry occupy a large part of the work, which closes with a discussion of the subject in its ethnic relationship.

MAXON, WILLIAM R. Notes on the birds of Madison County, New York, with especial reference to Embody's recent list.

Auk, XX, No. 3, July, 1903, pp. 262-266.

Notes on 36 species, intended to supplement the "Birds of Madison County, New York," by G. C. Embody.

——— A fern new to the United States.

Torreya, III, Dec. 22, 1903, pp. 184, 185.

Records the occurrence of *Asplenium auritum* Sw. in Florida.

——— Two new ferns of the genus *Polypodium*, from Jamaica.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1374, May 21, 1904, pp. 741-744.

P. rigens and *P. aromaticum* are described as new.

——— A new fern, *Goniophlebium pringlei*, from Mexico.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1379, June 27, 1904, pp. 953-954, pl. 48, 1 text fig.

MAYNARD, GEORGE C. Notes on the manufacture of small arms for the United States Army in Government arsenals and by private makers.

Sporting Goods Dealer, St. Louis, Mo., Jan., 1904, IX, No. 4, pp. 36-39.

MERRILL, GEORGE P. On the glacial pothole in the National Museum.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue I, pts. 1 and 2, Dec. 9, 1903, pp. 100-103, 1 pl.

The above describes briefly the mode of occurrence and the method of extraction of a large glacial pothole found at Georgetown, Maine, and obtained in 1893 for the U. S. National Museum.

——— Report on the Department of Geology for the year 1900-1901.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1901 (1903), pp 81-91.

MERRILL, GEORGE P. Report on the Department of Geology for the year 1901–1902.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1902 (1903), pp. 77–84.

——— The | Nonmetallic minerals. | Their occurrence and uses | By | George P. Merrill, | Head Curator of Geology in the U. S. National Museum, and Professor of Geology in the Corcoran Scientific School of Columbian University, | Washington, D. C., Author of "Stones for Building and Decoration," | "Rocks, Rock-weathering, and Soils," etc. | First edition | First thousand | New York: | John Wiley & Sons. | London: Chapman & Hall, Limited. | 1904.

8vo., pp. I–XI, 1–414, pls. I–XXX, text figs. 1–28.

This work, as its title suggests, is practically a revised edition of the handbook and catalogue of the nonmetallic minerals, published by the National Museum.

——— (See also under FREDERICK W. TRUE.)

MILLER, GERRIT S., Jr. A new Nataline bat from the Bahamas.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Sept. 30, 1903, pp. 119, 120.

Chilonatalus tumidifrons, p. 119.

——— Seventy new Malayan mammals.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. isssue I, pts. 1, 2, Nov. 6, 1903, pp. 1–73, pls. I–XIX.

Tragulus batuanus (p. 2), *Tragulus russulus* (p. 3), *Ratufa insignis* (p. 4), *Ratufa conspicua* (p. 5), *Ratufa balæ* (p. 6), *Ratufa masæ* (p. 7), *Ratufa piniensis* (p. 8), *Sciurus bilimitatus* (p. 8), *Sciurus pemangilensis* (p. 9), *Sciurus aoris* (p. 10), *Sciurus peninsularis* (p. 10), *Sciurus pannovianus* (p. 11), *Sciurus ictericus* (p. 12), *Sciurus atratus* (p. 13), *Sciurus piniensis* (p. 14), *Sciurus balæ* (p. 14), *Sciurus pumilus* (p. 15), *Sciurus lancavensis* (p. 16), *Sciurus adangensis* (p. 17), *Sciurus sullivanus* (p. 17), *Sciurus domelicus* (p. 18), *Sciurus bentincanus* (p. 19), *Sciurus matthæus* (p. 19), *Sciurus lucas* (p. 20), *Sciurus casensis* (p. 20), *Sciurus altinsularis* (p. 21), *Sciurus rubeculus* (p. 22), *Funambulus obscurus* (p. 23), *Funambulus rostratus* (p. 24), *Funambulus peninsulæ* (p. 25), *Sciuropterus mærens* (p. 26), *Petaurista batuana* (p. 27), *Mus stridens* (p. 28), *Mus matthæus* (p. 29), *Mus stridulus* (p. 29), *Mus lucas* (p. 30), *Mus soccatus* (p. 30), *Mus masæ* (p. 32), *Mus balæ* (p. 33), *Mus lugens* (p. 33), *Mus julianus* (p. 34), *Mus gilbiventer*, (p. 35), *Mus lutcolus* (p. 36), *Mus umbridorsum* (p. 37), *Mus casensis* (p. 38), *Mus domelicus* (p. 39), *Mus pagensis* (p. 39), *Chiropodomys niadis* (p. 40), *Atherura zygomatica* (p. 42), *Hemigale minor* (p. 43), *Paradoxurus lignicolor* (p. 44), *Galeopithecus pumilus* (p. 46), *Galeopithecus aoris* (p. 47), *Galeopithecus gracilis* (p. 49), *Galeopithecus natunæ* (p. 50), *Galeopithecus saturatus* (p. 51), *Galeopithecus tuancus* (p. 53), *Tupaia castanea* (p. 54), *Tupaia pulonis* (p. 56), *Tupaia tephrura* (p. 57), *Tupaia chrysogaster* (p. 58), *Tupaia cervicalis* (p. 59), *Pteropus geminorum* (p. 60), *Macacus pagensis* (p. 61), *Macacus phæura* (p. 63), *Presbytes rhionis* (p. 64), *Presbytes batuanus* (p. 65), *Simias* gen. nov. (p. 66), *Simias concolor* (p. 67), *Symphalangus klossii* (p. 70).

——— A new hare from Greece.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Nov. 12, 1903, pp. 145, 146.

Lepus parnassius (p. 145).

——— A new squirrel from Lower Siam.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Nov. 12, 1903, pp. 147, 148.

Sciurus novemlineatus (p. 147).

——— Descriptions of two new Mole Rats.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Nov. 30, 1903, pp. 161–164.

Spalax dolbrogeæ (p. 161); *Spalax berytensis* (p. 162).

——— A second specimen of *Euderma maculatum*.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Nov. 30, 1903, pp. 165, 166, fig. 1.

Records the second specimen of this bat, from Mesilla Park, New Mexico, September, 1903.

——— Notes on the bats collected by William Palmer in Cuba.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1159, Jan. 23, 1904, pp. 337–348, Plate IX.

An annotated list of fifteen species.

——— The species of *Geum* occurring near Washington.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVII, Apr. 9, 1904, pp. 191, 192.

MILLER, GERRIT S., Jr., and REHN, JAMES A. G. Systematic results of the study of North American land mammals during the years of 1901 and 1902.

Proc. Boston Soc. Nat. His., XXXI, Aug. 27, 1903, pp. 61–145.

List of additions and alterations made during the two preceding years.

MOORE, CLARENCE B. The so-called "hoe-shaped implement."

Am. Anthropologist (new series), V, No. 3, July-Sept., 1903, pp. 498–502, 6 text figs.

A discussion of an aboriginal hoe-shaped implement found in the United States, in which a ceremonial adz from Cook Islands, belonging to the U. S. National Museum, is figured and described.

NEEDHAM, JAMES G. New Dragon-fly nymphs in the United States National Museum.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1371, May 20, 1904, pp. 685–720, text figs. 1–11; pls. XXXVIII–XLIV.

NELSON, E. W. Descriptions of new birds from southern Mexico.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Nov. 30, 1903, pp. 151–159.

New birds are described as follows: *Geotrygon albifacies rubida* (p. 151), *Dactylortyx thoracicus sharpei* (p. 152), *Syrnium occidentale lucidum* (p. 152), *Xiphocolaptes emigrans omiltemensis* (p. 153), *Cyanolyca mirabilis* (p. 154), *Aphelocoma guerrerensis* (p. 154), *Vireolanius melitophrys goldmani* (p. 155), *Geothlypis chapalensis* (p. 156), *Thryophilus sinaloa russeus* (p. 157), *Troglodytes brunneicollis nitidus* (p. 158), *Henicorhina leucophrys festiva* (p. 158), *Hemiura leucogastra musica* (p. 159), and *Sialia mexicana australis* (p. 159).

——— A revision of the North American mainland species of *Myiarchus*.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVII, Mar. 10, 1904, pp. 21–50, fig. 1.

Two subgenera (*Myiarchus* and *Onychopterus*) with nineteen species and subspecies are here recognized. All are minutely described, and three subspecies are named for the first time, viz: *Myiarchus lawrencei bangsi* (p. 45), *m. l. querulus* (p. 47), and *m. l. tresmariæ* (p. 49).

NORTON, C. A. Q. The lights and lamps of early New England.

Connecticut Magazine, VIII, 1903, No. 1, pp. 95–100, 5 figs.; No. 2, pp. 248–255, 6 figs.

A series of articles appearing at intervals since Feb.-Mar., 1903, based on the collections of the U. S. National Museum and the private collections of Doctor Norton.

NUTTING, CHARLES CLEVELAND. Smithsonian Institution. | United States National Museum. |—|Special Bulletin.|— American Hydroids.|—|Part II. | The Sertularidæ, | with forty-one plates. | By | Charles Cleveland Nutting, | Professor of Zoology, University of Iowa.|— Washington: | Government Printing Office. | 1904.

Special Bulletin, U. S. Nat. Mus. No. 4 (Part II), June 24, 1904, 4 to pp. 1–325, pls. 1–41, text figs. 1–139.

A continuation of the monograph of American hydroids, the first part of which, the Plumularidæ, appeared in 1900. Under the heading "Morphology," the Trophosome, Gonosome, Gonangium, and the Development of the Sertularidæ are separately treated. Under the Systematic Discussion keys are given to the genera and species. One hundred and thirty-one species representing 10 genera are described; many species are new.

NUTTING, CHARLES CLEVELAND—Con.

OBERHOLSER, HARRY C. The North American forms of *Astragalinus psaltria* (Say).

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Sept. 30, 1903, pp. 113–116.

Two forms only of this species are recognized from North America, true *A. psaltria* and *A. p. hesperophilus*, the latter new. *A. p. arizonæ* and *A. p. mexicana* are shown to be equivalent to true *A. psaltria*.

——— Description of a new *Telmatodytes*.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Nov. 12, 1903, pp. 149, 150.

Telmatodytes palustris thryophilus (p. 149), is described as new, from the coast region of Louisiana and eastern Texas.

——— A revision of the American Great Horned Owls.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1352, Jan. 22, 1904, pp. 177–192.

A study of over 200 specimens of *Asio* (*Bubo* of recent authors), from various parts of America, has enabled the author to recognize sixteen forms, all subspecies of *A. magellanicus* (Gmelin). The following are described as new: *Asio magellanicus mesembrinus* (p. 179), *A. m. melancerus* (p. 180), *A. m. icelus* (p. 185), *A. m. lagophonus* (p. 185), *A. m. heterocnemis* (p. 187), and *A. m. algistus* (p. 190).

——— A review of the wrens of the genus *Troglodytes*.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1354, Jan. 23, 1904, pp. 197–210, pl. V.

Thirty-seven species and subspecies of *Troglodytes* are here recognized, of which the following are described as new: *Troglodytes musculus acosmus*, p. 204, *T. m. atopus*, p. 207, and *T. m. enochrus*, p. 207. A new generic name, *Thryorchilus*, p. 198, is proposed for *Troglodytes browni* Bangs.

——— Description of a new African weaver-bird.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1370, Apr. 13, 1904, p. 683.

Philetairus cabanisi enchorus, collected in Somali Land by Dr. A. Donaldson Smith, is described as a new subspecies.

——— Description of two new birds from Somali Land.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1373, May 21, 1904, pp. 737–739.

Merops superciliosus donaldsoni, p. 737, and *Polihierax semitorquatus homopterus*, p. 738, are described as new.

ORTMANN, A. E. [Review of] The cosmopolitan character of the deep-sea fauna.

Science (new series), XIX, No. 491, May 27, 1904, pp. 827, 828.

A review of a paper with the above title read before the Academy of Science and Art of Pittsburg, Feb. 2, 1904. The paper is based on a small collection of deep-sea schizopoda from the Hawaiian Islands, collected by the U. S. Bureau of Fisheries steamer *Albatross*, and now belonging to the U. S. National Museum.

PHALEN, WILLIAM C. Notes on the rocks of Nugsuaks Peninsula and its environs, Greenland.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 1, 2, Jan. 7, 1904, pp. 183–212, 3 pls.

Describes the rocks of the peninsula, their mineral composition, microscopic structure, and chemical composition. An attempt is also made to classify them by the method suggested by Messrs. Cross, Iddings, Washington, and Pirsson.

——— A new occurrence of unakite.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, I, pts. 3, 4, Apr. 11, 1904, pp. 306–316, 3 pls.

The paper describes an interesting occurrence of the epidotic granite, such as was first named unakite by Bradley, and which here occurs as a contact rock in connection with more basic eruptives.

PRENTISS, DANIEL WEBSTER. Description of an extinct mink from the shell heaps of the Maine coast.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1336, July 6, 1903, pp. 887, 888, 1 text fig.

Lutreola macrodon (p. 888).

RATHBUN, MARY J. A preoccupied crab name.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVII, Apr. 9, 1904, p. 102.

Melia Latreille, in common use, should be superseded by *Lybia* Milne-Edwards.

——— Decapod crustaceans of the Northwest coast of North America.

Harriman Alaska Expedition, X, Apr. 18, 1904, pp. 1–190, pls. I–X, text figs. 1–95.

Based on material collected by the Harriman Expedition, and by the U. S. Bureau of Fisheries, Dr. W. H. Dall and others. Descriptions and figures of all the little-known species are given, and also a check list of all the species of the region. One species, *Betæus harrimani*, is described as new.

RATHBUN, RICHARD. Report upon the condition and progress of the U. S. National Museum during the year ending June 30, 1901.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1901 (1903), pp. 1–174.

——— Report upon the condition and progress of the U. S. National Museum during the year ending June 30, 1902.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1902 (1903), pp. 1–168.

RAVENEL, W. DE C. The United States Commission of Fish and Fisheries, and its exhibit at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis, Mo., 1904.

8vo., pp. 1–54, frontispiece. (Press of Gibson Brothers, Washington, D. C.)

REHN, JAMES A. G. Studies in American mantids or soothsayers.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1364, Feb. 6, 1904, pp. 561–574.

——— Studies in old world forficulids or earwigs, and blattids or cockroaches.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1363, Feb. 16, 1904, pp. 539–560.

——— (See also under GERRIT S. MILLER, Jr.)

RICHARDSON, HARRIET. Isopods collected at the Hawaiian Islands by the United States Fish Commission steamer *Albatross*.

Bull. U. S. Fish Com. for 1903, Sept. 17, 1903, pp. 47–54, text figs. 1–8.

Nine species were collected, of which four are described as new and two represent new genera.

——— Contributions to the natural history of the Isopoda.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1350, Jan. 19, 1904, pp. 1–89, text figs. 1–92; No. 1369, Apr. 18, 1904, pp. 657–681, text figs. 1–39.

No. 1350 includes the following: An introduction dealing with the classification, anatomy, development, habits, distribution, etc., of the Isopoda; and four systematic papers bearing the subtitles:

I. Isopoda collected in Japan in the year 1900 by the U. S. Fish Commission steamer *Albatross*, and in the year 1881 by the U. S. S. *Palos*.

II. Isopoda collected in Japan by Jordan and Snyder.

III. Two new Cymothoids from the west coast of Central America.

IV. American Epicaridea.

RICHARDSON, HARRIET—Continued.

No. 1369 comprises two papers reprinted respectively from the Harriman Alaska Expedition, Vol. x, and from the Bulletin of the U. S. Fish Commission for 1903. (See above.)

The whole was reprinted as a separate with pagination I–IX, 1–113, and presented as a thesis for the Doctorate of Philosophy at Columbian University, Washington, D. C., 1903.

——— Isopod crustaceans of the Northwest coast of North America.

Harriman Alaska Expedition, x, April 18, 1904, pp. 213–230, text figs. 96–117.

Besides the Isopoda of the Harriman Expedition a number of Californian species are included. Five new species and two little known are described and figured.

RICHMOND, CHARLES W. Earliest name for the American crow.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XV, Sept. 30, 1903, p. 125.

Note directing attention to the name *Corvus brachyrhynchos* Brehm as antedating Audubon's *Corvus americanus*.

——— *Scolecophagus* preoccupied.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Sept. 30, 1903, p. 128.

Scolecophagus Swainson is shown to be preoccupied, and *Euphagus* Cassin is suggested for use in its stead.

——— On the name *Eniconetta*.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Sept. 30, 1903, p. 128.

Polysticta Eyton is suggested as the proper name for the genus currently known as *Eniconetta*.

——— [Review of] Sherborn's "Index Animalium."

Auk, XX, No. 4, Oct., 1903, pp. 448–450.

——— [Review of] "Index Zoologicus."

Auk, XX, No. 4, Oct., 1903, pp. 450, 451.

RIDGWAY, ROBERT. *Lophophanes* vs. *Bæolophus*.

Auk, XX, No. 3, July, 1903, p. 308.

Note showing the name *Lophophanes* to refer to the old-world Crested Tits. The American species should be included in the genus *Bæolophus*.

——— Description of new genera, species and subspecies of American birds.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Sept. 30, 1903, pp. 105–111.

The following birds are here briefly diagnosed: *Budytes flavus alascensis* (p. 105), *Alopochelidon* (type, *Hirundo fucata* Temminck) (p. 106), *Orochelidon* (type, *Petrochelidon murina* Cassin) (p. 106), *Diplochelidon* (type, *Hirundo melanoleuca* Wied) (p. 106), *Lamprochelidon* (type, *Hirundo euchrysea* Gosse) (p. 106), *Stelgidopteryx salvini* (p. 107), *Vireosylva gilva brewsteri* (p. 107), *V. josephæ costaricensis* (p. 107), *Vireo huttoni cognatus* (p. 107), *V. huttoni mexicanus* (p. 107), *V. bellii arizonæ* (p. 108). *Pachysilvia ochracciceps pallidipectus* p. 108), *Vireolanius pulchellus viridiceps* (p. 108), *Lanius ludovicianus mearnsii* (p. 108), *Aphelocoma unicolor cælestis* (p. 108), *Bæolophus inornatus restrictus* (p. 109), *B. i. murinus* (p. 109), *Psaltriparus minimus saturatus* (p. 109), *Chamæa fasciata rufula* (p. 109), *Polioptila nelsoni* (p. 109), *P. bairdi* (p. 110), *P. superciliaris magna*, (p. 110), *Telmatodytes palustris iliacus*, (p. 110) and *Heleodytes nelsoni* (p. 111).

——— Diagnoses of nine new forms of American birds.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Nov. 30, 1903, pp. 167–169.

Brief descriptions are given of the following new species and subspecies: *Thryophilus pleurostictus ravus* (p. 167), *T. modestus pullus* (p. 167), *Salpinctes obsoletus notius* (p. 168), *Henicorhina leucophrys castanea* (p. 168), *H. l. berlepschi* (p. 168), *H. hilaris bangsi* (p. 168), *Cistothorus polyglottus lucidus* (p. 169), *Salpinctes obsoletus exsul*, (p. 169), and *S. maculatus* (p. 169).

RILEY, J. H. A new subspecies of night hawk from the Bahama Islands.

Auk, XX, No. 4, Oct., 1903, pp. 431–433.

Chordeiles virginianus vicinus (p. 432), is described as new, and comparisons are made with nearly related forms.

——— The Snowy Plover in the Bahamas.

Auk, XX, No. 4, Oct., 1903, p. 433.

Note on the capture of *Ægialitis nivosa* on Long Island, Bahamas.

——— The second known specimen of *Centurus nyeanus* Ridgway.

Auk, XX, No. 4, Oct., 1903, p. 434.

Record of a second specimen of Nye's Woodpecker, from Watlings Island, Bahamas.

ROSE, JOSEPH N. [*Begonia unifolia* sp. nov.]

Rep. Mo. Botan. Garden, vol. 15, 1904, pp. 80, 81; pls. 28, 29.

ROSE, J. N., and BRITTON, N. L. New or noteworthy North American Crassulaceæ.

Bull. N. Y. Botan. Garden, 3, Sept., 1903, pp. 1–45.

This paper is a preliminary treatment of the Crassulaceæ for North America, and will soon be followed by an exhaustive monograph of the family. A large number of new species are described and the following genera: *Dudleya, Hasseanthus, Sedella, Urbinia, Altamiranoa, Villadia, Stylophyllum, Gormannia, Oliverella, Clementia*, and *Tillecastrum*.

SCHUCHERT, CHARLES. On the faunal provinces of the Middle Devonic of America and the Devonic Coral subprovinces of Russia, with two paleographic maps.

Am. Geologist, XXXII, Sept., 1903, pp. 137–162, and 2 maps.

This paper points out some of the salient differences between the Devonic faunas of the Dakota Sea having Euro-asiatic characteristics and those of the Mississippian Sea, which is of the "American Province." The probable lands separating these seas are described and mapped.

——— On new Siluric Cystoidea, and a new *Camarocrinus*.

Am. Geologist, XXXII, Oct., 1903, pp. 230–240.

Describes two new genera, *Jækelocystis* and *Cœlocystis*, and the following seven new species: *Jækelocystis hartleyi, Sphærocystites globularis, Pseudocrinites gordoni, P. stellatus, P. clarki, P. perdewi*, and *Camarocrinus ulrichi*.

All the material is in the national collection.

SHARPE, RICHARD W. Report on the fresh-water Ostracoda of the United States National Museum, including a revision of the subfamilies and genera of the family Cyprididæ.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1347, July 15, 1903, pp. 969–1001, pls. LXIV–LXIX.

Includes keys to the subdivisions of the family Cyprididæ, keys to North American species, revised descriptions of genera. One genus and two species are described as new.

SMITH, HUGH M. Description of a new species of blind eel, of the genus *Anguilla*.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVII, June 9, 1904, pp. 121, 122.

SNYDER, JOHN OTTERBEIN. (See under DAVID STARR JORDAN.)

STARKS, EDWIN CHAPIN. The osteology of some Berycoid fishes.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1366, Feb. 18, 1904, pp. 601–619, figs. 1–10.

——— (See also under CHARLES H. GILBERT and DAVID STARR JORDAN.)

STEARNS, R. E. C. Eucalypts in the Philippines.

Science (new series), XVIII, No. 457, Oct. 2, 1903, pp. 439, 440.

STEBBING, THOMAS R. R. Amphipoda from Costa Rica.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVI, No. 1341, July 9, 1903, pp. 925–931, pls. LX, LXI.

Two new species collected by Prof. P. Biolley, of the National Museum of Costa Rica—*Talorchestia fritzi* and *Hyalella faxoni*.

STEERE, JOSEPH BEAL. Narrative of a visit to Indian tribes of the Purus River, Brazil.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1901 (1903), pp. 359–393, pls. 1–9.

STEJNEGER, LEONHARD. Report of the delegate to the Fifth International Zoological Congress, Berlin, Aug. 12–16, 1901.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1902 (1903), pp. 167, 168.

——— A new hognose snake from Florida.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Sept. 30, 1903, pp. 123, 124.

Described as new species, *Heterodon browni*, type No. 32089, U.S.N.M.

——— A new species of large iguana from the Bahama Islands.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, Nov. 12, 1903, pp. 129–132.

Described as new species, *Cyclura rileyi*, type No. 31969, U.S.N.M.

——— A new lizard from the Rio Grande Valley, Texas.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVII, Feb. 5, 1904, pp. 17–20.

Described as new species, *Sceloporus merriami*, type No. 33039, U.S.N.M.

——— A reply to recent strictures on American biologists.

Science (new series) XIX, Mar. 4, 1904, pp. 371–376.

Written principally in order to show the necessity of the American museums acquiring more biological material from the palearctic region.

——— The Herpetology of Porto Rico.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1902 (1904), pp. 549–724, pl. 1, figs. 1–197.

A full account of all the reptiles and batrachians found in Porto Rico, including detailed descriptions accompanied by numerous text figures of all the species, as well as general chapters on their origin and distribution. The following species are described as new: *Eleutherodactylus richmondi, Eleutherodactylus unicolor, Sphærodactylus grandisquamis, Anolis monensis, Anolis evermanni, Anolis poncensis, Amphisbæna bakeri, Typhlops rostellatus, Typhlops dominicanus, Leimadophis stahli*.

STEVENSON, MATILDA COXE. Zuñi games.

Am. Anthropologist (new series), V, No. 3, July-Sept., 1903, pp. 468–497, pls. XLVIII, XLIX, 11 text figs.

A paper devoted to the study and illustration of all the important games (seventeen in number) of the Zuñi Indians. These do not include children's games.

STILES, CHARLES WARDELL. Clinical diagnosis of intestinal parasites.

Journ. Am. Med. Assoc., XLI, No. 3, July 18, 1903, pp. 172, 173.

——— The dwarf tapeworm (*Hymenolepis nana*), a newly recognized and probably rather common American parasite.

New York Med. Journ., LXXVIII, No. 19, Nov. 7, 1903, pp. 877–881, figs. 1–5.

STILES, CHARLES WARDELL, and HASSALL, ALBERT. Index catalogue of medical and veterinary zoology.

Bull. Bureau Animal Industry, U. S. Dept. Agric., No. 39, Part 4, Authors, D–Dziembowski, pp. 325–403 (issued, July, 1903); Part 5, Authors, E–Eyssel, pp. 405–435 (issued, Sept., 1903); Part 6, Authors, F–Fynney, pp. 437–510 (issued, Feb., 1904).

TASSIN, WIRT. The Persimmon Creek meteorite.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1380, June 27, 1904, pp. 955–959, pls. 49, 50.

A description and analysis of a meteoric iron found on Persimmon Creek, Cherokee Co., N. C. The iron is described "as a granular octahedrite, containing numerous troilite and some silicate areas." Analyses of the mass and of the nickel-iron alloys and the silicate are given.

TRUE, FREDERICK W. First record of the Pollack whale (*Balænoptera borealis*) in the western North Atlantic.[a]

Science (new series), XVII, No. 421, Jan. 23, 1903, p. 150.

——— A note on the common Bottle-nosed Porpoise of the North Atlantic, *Turscops truncatus* (Montagu).

Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., March, 1903 (issued July 3, 1903), pp. 313, 314.

——— On species of South American Delphinidæ described by Dr. R. A. Philipp in 1893 and 1896.

Proc. Biol. Soc. Wash., XVI, 1903 (issued Nov. 12, 1903), pp. 133–144.

——— On some photographs of living finback whales from Newfoundland.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. issue, No. 1423, Dec. 9, 1903, pp. 91–94, pls. 24–26.

——— Notes on a porpoise of the genus *Prodelphinus* from the Hawaiian Islands.

U. S. Fish Com. Bull. for 1903, pp. 41–45, pls. 1, 2.

TRUE, FREDERICK W. Report on the Department of Biology for the year 1900–1901.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1901 (1903), pp. 63–80.

——— Report on the Department of Biology for the year 1901–1902.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1902 (1903), pp. 59–76.

——— Notes on a Killer Whale (genus *Orcinus*) from the coast of Maine.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1357, Jan. 27, 1904, pp. 227–230, pls. 7, 8.

——— A summary of general observations on the sports and movements of whales. By Emile G. Racovitza. (Translation.)

Rept. Smithsonian Inst. 1903 (1904), pp. 627–645.

——— [Articles prepared on the following subjects:] *Mammals, grampus, killer, narwhal, porpoise, rorqual, spermaceti, whale, whalebone, whaling.*

Encyclopedia Americana, 1904.

TRUE, FREDERICK W., HOLMES, WILLIAM H., and MERRILL, GEORGE P. Report on the exhibit of the United States National Museum at the Pan-American Exposition, Buffalo, New York, 1901.

Rep. Smithsonian Inst. (U. S. Nat. Mus.), 1901 (1903), pp. 177–231, pls. 1–72.

UHLER, PHILIP R. List of Hemiptera-Heteroptera of Las Vegas Hot Springs, New Mexico, collected by Messrs. E. A. Schwarz and Herbert S. Barber.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1360, Jan. 27, 1904, pp. 349–364.

ULRICH, E. O., and BASSLER, R. S. A revision of the Paleozoic Bryozoa. Part I.—On the genera and species of Ctenostomata.

Smithsonian Misc. Colls., XLV, Quar. Issue, I, pts. 3 and 4, Apr. 11, 1904, pp. 256–294, pls. 65–68, 2 text figs.

As the title indicates, this is a revision of the Paleozoic ctenostomatous bryozoa. All the old species and genera of the order are defined, besides the new ones, as follows: *Heteronema* (*H. capillare, H. carbonarium*, and *H.? contextum*), *Allonema* (*A. botelloides, A. waldronense, A. suffusiforme*, and *A. moniliforme-aggregatum*), and *Ptychocladia* (*P. agel-*

[a] This title was not received in time to permit of its insertion in the Bibliography for the preceding year.

ULRICH, E. O., and BASSLER, R. S.—Continued.

lus). Other new species are *Rhopalonaria attenuata, R. robusta, R. tenuis, R. medialis, R. keokukensis, Vinella? multiradiata, Ascodictyon floreale, A. parvulum*, and *A. sparsum*.

VAUGHAN, T. WAYLAND. [Anthozoa.]

Memoirs Cal. Acad. Sci., III, 1903, pp. 86–89, pl. iii, figs. 1–4*a*.

Four species are described, three of which, *Caryophyllia californica* from the Pliocene, *Caryophyllia pedrœnsis* and *Paracyathus pedrœnsis* from the Pleistocene are considered new. Included in "Ralph Arnold's Paleontology and stratigraphy of the marine Pliocene and Pleistocene of San Pedro, California."

——— A Californian Tertiary coral reef and its bearing on American recent coral faunas.

Science (new series), XIX, Mar. 25, 1904, p. 503.

This is an abstract of a paper read before the Geological Society of Washington, January 27, 1904. It was shown that during Lower Miocene time the West Indian type of coral fauna extended westward into the Pacific and it was subsequent to that time that the Atlantic and Pacific faunas of America have been so markedly differentiated.

——— Zoology and the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature.

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Review of *Cœlenterata* in The International Catalogue of Scientific Literature. First Annual Issue, N, Zoology (for the year 1901); 1904 (February).

WHITE, DAVID. Summary of the fossil plants recorded from the Upper Carboniferous and Permian formations of Kansas.

Bull. U. S. Geol. Surv., No. 211, 1903, pp. 85–117.

This paper on the fossil plants of the coal measures of Kansas contains a summary of all the genera and species as yet made known from the Upper Carboniferous of that State,] with a discussion of the age of the beds and provisional correlations of the plant-bearing terranes with the coal measures of the Appalachian trough. The greater part of the material in question is included in the Lacoe collection, which furnished nearly all the types of a number of new species described, as well as for several species not before reported in North America. The article also gives the names of a number of new species embraced in unpublished manuscript by Leo Lesquereux, the Kansas types of which are all preserved in the Lacoe collection. The Museum catalogue numbers of the specimens are cited throughout the paper under the records of the various types.

WILSON, CHARLES BRANCH. A new species of *Argulus*, with a more complete account of two species already described.

Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., XXVII, No. 1368, Apr. 9, 1904, pp. 627–655, text figs. 1–38.

Argulus trilineatus new species and fuller accounts of *A. americanus* and *A. versicolor*.

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APPENDIX IV.

REPORT OF CHARLES SCHUCHERT, DELEGATE OF THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION AND U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM TO THE NINTH INTERNATIONAL GEOLOGICAL CONGRESS, HELD AT VIENNA, AUSTRIA, AUGUST 20–27, 1903.

The congress held its first meeting on August 20 in the festsalle of the Vienna University, and all the subsequent meetings were held in this large and handsome building. The opening gathering was a festal one, and the addresses of welcome were made by the protector of the congress, Erzherzog Rainer, and by the honorary president, Dr. von Hartel. Prorektor Hofrat Dr. Schipper greeted the congress for the university, and Vizeburgemeister Strobach for the city of Vienna. The president of the congress, director of the Royal Geological Institute of Austria, called attention to the great variety of geological structures and formations within the Austrian Empire, invited all to join the excursions, and thus to learn by practical means what the Austrian geologists had to offer. The routine work of the congress largely devolved upon the general secretary, Prof. Dr. Diener, of the university.

The social side of the congress, of course, could not be other than kindly, due to the well-known hospitality of Austrians, and especially of the citizens of the beautiful city of Vienna. On the evening of the 24th of August the congress was invited to a reception and banquet in the grand rathause by Herr Strobach, assisted by Dr. Neumayer. About 500 ladies and gentlemen participated.

The congress was a success, as 355 members were in attendance out of 640 that had registered. North America was represented by 1 from Mexico, 2 from Canada, and 22 from the United States. The standard of the papers presented was high. One day was occupied by seven speakers from various parts of the world in presenting a synopsis of our present knowledge of the crystalline rocks. Our countryman, C. R. Van Hise, took a leading part in this presentation. Another day was devoted to "Faults and Cliffs," one of the speakers being Mr. Bailey Willis, of the U. S. Geological Survey, who presented a paper entitled "On the overthrust faults of North America." A timely and well-illustrated presentation was that of Dr. E. O. Hovey on "The 1902 eruptions of La Pelée, Martinique, and La Souffrière, St. Vincent." Another day was devoted to a presentation of the geology of the Balkan Peninsula and the Orient. The scientific meetings were on alternate days, the intermediate ones being occupied by excursions to noted places of geologic interest around Vienna. These one-day excursions were necessarily made hurriedly and were intended to acquaint the visitors with some of the broader structures, of which Austria has so large a variety.

At Vienna a paleontologist finds much to interest him, not only in the beautiful and well-ordered museum and through coming in contact with many able scientific men, but also from a study of the great collections. If one wishes to examine Austrian fossils from the provincial or stratigraphic side, he will find the Geologische Reichsanstalt in Rasumoffskygasse full of interest. For general paleontology there are the splendid collections of the Naturhistorische Hofmuseum, and of paleobiology at the Paleontological Institute of the University.

The closing banquet of the congress, at the Hotel Continental on the evening of August 27, was one of those pleasant affairs which will live long in the memory of the attending geologists because of the general good fellowship. Tietze presided at this banquet and spoke the official farewell in French, followed by Geikie with reminiscences in English. The latter told us that more than forty years ago he made his first visit to Vienna for the purpose of consulting with Haidinger, one of the great geologists of that day. Of those he then met, nearly all are now gone except ing Suess, then a young man beginning to attract attention, but now known to us all through his masterly work, "Das Antlitz der Erde."

This reference to forty years ago, when both Geikie and Suess were young, visibly affected the latter. Toward the end of the speaking Suess rose, and with bowed head and a low voice increasing to considerable volume as he proceeded, spoke eloquently in German in the following words:

"My distinguished master, Sir Archibald Geikie, was so kind as to say that more than forty years ago he became personally acquainted with me. With my highly honored friend Baron Richthofen, it is rather near fifty years. What a memorable half century we have lived through! During this time, under the influence of increasing knowledge of nature, all human conceptions of the earth have changed. It is remarkable, however, to see how often the single inquirer, bent upon the object of his quest, fails to comprehend the broader aspects of a problem by whose details he is fettered, just as the stonecutter clinging to the façade, can not see the splendor of the structure on which he himself is engaged. And yet there is a special charm in geological studies precisely on account of the extraordinary range of accommodation that is demanded of the eye—of the same eye which now examines the disintegration of quartz in a thin slide under the microscope, now sweeps over snowy mountain peaks, over dark precipitous cliffs and verdant vales, and with commanding glance reads their structure in the features of the landscape. But not less is the demand on the adjusting powers of the mind. From the most subtle conclusions derived from an ingenious experiment the geologist must be able to lift the mental eye over hill and valley into the most distant parts of the universe. There the glowing spectra of nebulæ teach him that even now the great processes of world-making are not yet ended. With the aid of instruments he can daily witness the greatest eruptions of superheated gases emanating from the body of our sun. Photography spreads before him the pictures of the desolate crater fields of the moon.

"Returning to his earth he now perceives that the sum total of life's phenomena not only forms a single phenomenon, but that it is also limited by space and time. It occurs to him now that the stone which his hammer strikes is but the nearest lying piece of the planet, that the history of this stone is a fragment of the history of the planet, and that the history of the planet itself is only a very small part of the history of the great, wonderful, and ever-changing kosmos.

"His heart then thrills; he feels called as a colaborer on the most sublime problems in which feeble mortal beings can take part. Then, too, he sees that the fundamental lines of structure coursing over the earth's surface have nothing to do with the political lines separating the nations. The vastness of the problem itself makes the concord of civilized nations natural, and they remain separated only through their emulation, all filled with the idea that mankind in general will most highly esteem that nation which is in the position to offer the most and the best of noble example, of new truth, and of ideal worth.

"These are the words which have crowded into articulation at this moment when you, now gathered from all parts of the world, are about to disperse.

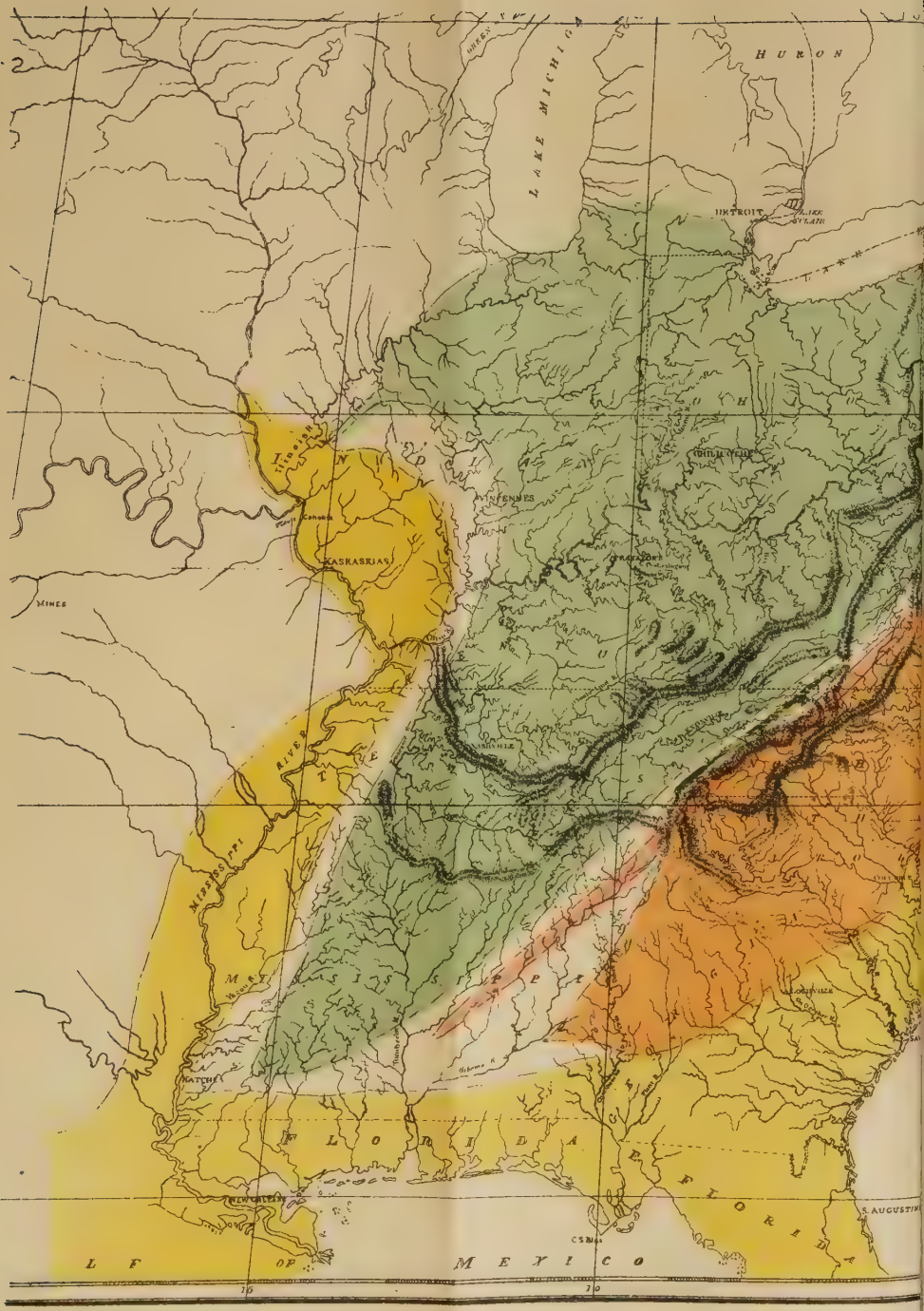
"For the continuation of the feelings that fill us to-day, and for continued inspiration for our noble science, I raise my glass."

WASHINGTON, D. C., *June 25, 1904.*

PART II.

PAPERS DESCRIBING AND ILLUSTRATING COLLECTIONS IN THE U. S. NATIONAL MUSEUM.

	Page.
Contributions to the History of American Geology. By George P. Merrill	189
The S. S. Howland Collection of Buddhist Religious Art in the National Museum. By Immanuel M. Casanowicz	735
Flint Implements of the Fayum, Egypt. By Heywood Walter Seton-Karr	745



MACLURE'S GEOLOGICAL M

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AP OF THE UNITED STATES.

merican Philosophical Society, Vol. VI, Pt. 2, 1809.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE HISTORY OF AMERICAN GEOLOGY.

BY

GEORGE P. MERRILL,

Head Curator of Geology, U. S. National Museum.

The attainment of scientific truth has been effected to a great extent by the help of scientific error.—*Huxley.*

PREFATORY NOTE.

The work herewith presented is in part an outgrowth of a series of lectures to students in geology in Columbian (now George Washington) University, though many of the facts were gathered while looking up the records of the early Government surveys, with a view of ascertaining the final disposition of their collections. No idea was at first entertained of putting the matter in book form, but as material gradually accumulated the advisability of making it a permanent record became apparent. On the supposition that it was a desirable thing to do at all, it is perhaps fortunate that the idea of a fairly consecutive history of the rise and progress of American geology was, like the science itself, a matter of growth, as the magnitude of the task would certainly have deterred from undertaking it one whose main opportunity lay in the improvement of odd moments.

As to the mode of presentation of the subject: It has been the writer's desire to do this in a manner such as should show not merely what has been done, by whom, and how it has been done, but the gradual growth of the science and the development of powers of observation and deduction as well. To do this satisfactorily, no other arrangement than a chronological one seemed possible, though it must be confessed that a topical one would have been easier to handle and could, perhaps, have been made more readable. In several instances, indeed, the topical treatment has been adopted, as in the chapters on the Eozoon and the Taconic question. Should it appear that the method is essentially similar to that adopted by Sir Archibald Geikie in his Founders of Geology, the writer has only to express the regret that the imitation is so crude.

Let no one for a moment feel that the writer has called attention to the errors and crudities of observation and deduction of the early workers in a spirit of levity. Far from that. These men were pioneers. They had received little or no preliminary training along these special lines, and had access to but few books. The information with which the geologist of to-day begins his career did not then exist, and an effort has here been made to show by what years of toil each new fact has been unearthed, cleansed of the débris which obscured its outlines, and treasured up in such form that it is now possible for the student, in a few short years, to encompass the garnerings of a century.

Nor must it be thought that in touching upon sundry disputes, quarrels, and petty jealousies it has been done with an idea of belittling the individual in any way. Indeed, a truly able man is not belittled by his weaknesses. To appreciate his strength we need to know his weakness. These were but men, and we, who are weakly human, like to recognize in them human traits—like to learn of their errors in judgment and wordy warfares.

Regarding the portraits, it may, perhaps, be well to state that a special effort has been made to obtain such as represented the individual at the period of his career under discussion. This has naturally been a matter of some difficulty, and in some cases an impossibility.

A large part of those here reproduced are from the G. Brown Goode collection in the National Museum and the private collection of the writer. For assistance in securing others the writer is indebted to Prof. W. H. Brewer, Prof. W. B. Clarke, Dr. W. H. Dall, S. F. Emmons, Dr. A. C. Peale, T. C. Weston, Gen. A. W. Vogdes, and others. Acknowledgments for other assistance are due to many, but particularly to Prof. Charles Schuchert, formerly of the National Museum, but now of Yale University. Miss Lucy M. Graves has rendered valuable assistance, both in preparation of the manuscript and reading the proof.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

Page.

The Maclurean Era, 1785–1819 207

Condition of geological science in the latter part of the eighteenth century. Work of Güttard, Pallas, De Saussure, Lehman, Fuchsel, Werner, and Hutton. Johann Schöpf's Contribution to the Geology of Eastern North America. Brief papers in the Memoirs of American Academy. Supposed volcano in Connecticut. Condition of analytical chemistry. Benjamin De Witt on the origin of the drift. Theories of Benjamin Franklin relative to earth history. Paleontological work of Thomas Jefferson. Rembrandt Peale's account of the mammoth. Thomas P. Smith's account of the Conewago Hills. B. H. Latrobe's recognition of the "fall line." Appointment of Benjamin Silliman at Yale College. Silliman's Mineralogy of New Haven. His account of the Weston meteorite. James Mease's geological account of the United States. William Maclure's Observations on the Geology of the United States. Sketch of Maclure. S. Godon's mineralogical observations. Establishment of Bruce's Mineralogical Journal. Samuel Akerly's geological account of Dutchess County, N. Y. J. Corre de Serra's ideas on soil formation. Jefferson's views regarding the Natural Bridge of Virginia. Views of Francis W. Gilmer and Elias Cornelius on the same. Parker Cleaveland's Elementary Treatise on Mineralogy and Geology. Sketch of Cleaveland. Second edition of Maclure's observations. Establishment by Silliman of the American Journal of Science. J. F. and S. L. Dana's Geology and Mineralogy of Boston. S. L. Mitchill's Observations on the Geology of North America. Mitchill's ideas relative to the Great Lakes and the drift. Edward Hitchcock's first geological paper. Amos Eaton's Index to the Geology of the Northern United States. Eaton's conjectures respecting the formation of the earth. Organization of the American Geological Society. H. R. Schoolcraft's explorations. S. H. Long's expedition to the Rocky Mountains. Edwin James's suggestions as to artesian wells in the arid regions. Geological notes by Silliman, Olmsted, and Atwater. Akerly's essay on the Geology of the Hudson River.

CHAPTER II.

The Eatonian Era, 1820–29 251

Generalities. Second edition of Eaton's Index. Eaton's views relative to the origin of the continents and of caves. Early suggestions as to overturned folds. Eaton's survey of Rensselaer County, New York. J. B. Gibson on trap rocks of the Conewago Hills. Nuttall's observations on geology. H. H. Hayden's geological essays. Hayden's views as to origin of the coastal plain and on rock decomposition. Sketch of Hayden. J. W. Wilson's criticism of the hypotheses of Volney and Mitchill. Thomas Cooper's ideas concerning volcanoes. Sketch of Cooper. Supposed human

Page.

footprints in limestone; views of Schoolcraft, Benton, and Owen. Early suggestions of faulting and displacement. John J. Bigsby's work in Canada. John Finch's subdivision of the Tertiary. Work of Denison Olmsted in North Carolina. Sketch of Olmsted. Hitchcock's Geology of the Region Contiguous to the Connecticut River. Chester Dewey on the Geology and Mineralogy of the Western part of Massachusetts. Eaton's survey of the district adjoining the Erie Canal. Geological views of Rafinesque. Peter Dobson's observations on the drift. The Long-Keating expedition to the Great Lakes and the sources of the Mississippi. J. H. Steel on overturned folds. J. Van Rensselaer's lectures on geology. Isaac Lea on earthquakes. Maclure's criticisms of the views of Scrope and Lea. Ebenezer Emmons's Manual of Mineralogy and Geology. Gerard Troost and his work. J. W. Webster's account of the geology about Boston. Alanson Nash on the formation of mineral veins. Work of Elisha Mitchell in North Carolina. Mitchell's criticism of the views of Olmsted and Rothe. Views of Benjamin Tappan concerning drift. The dark ages of geology. First attempt at correlation of beds by means of fossils. Work of Jackson and Alger in Nova Scotia. Sketch of C. T. Jackson. Views of Lardner Vanuxem on the Tertiary and the relative age of rocks, as indicated by position. Sketch of Vanuxem. First American edition of Bakewell's Geology, with Silliman's notes. Silliman's views relative to the early history of the earth and the Noachian deluge.

CHAPTER III.

The Era of State Surveys, First decade, 1830–1839 295

Generalities. Amos Eaton's Geological Text-Book. His views regarding the formation of various geological deposits; relative to the value of fossils. Personal characteristics of Eaton. Founding of the Monthly American Journal of Natural History. Sketch of G. W. Featherstonhaugh. Establishment of State Geological Survey of Tennessee. Jacob Green's Monograph of the Trilobites of North America. William Maclure's Geology of the West Indies. Maclure on the Formation of Rocks. T. A. Conrad's Tertiary of North America. Edward Hitchcock's survey of Massachusetts. Hitchcock's views regarding the origin of rocks and of valleys; on the value of fossils for purposes of correlation. His description of overturned folds; controversy relating to the same. Hitchcock's description of the flattened pebbles in the conglomerate at Newport, R. I. Sketch of Nicollet. Geological work of J. N. Nicollet in North America. The second American edition of Bakewell's Geology. Silliman's views relative to the nature of geological evidence and its consistency with sacred history. Amos Eaton's notions regarding the Rocky Mountains. Isaac Lea's Contributions to Geology. T. A. Conrad on the distribution of the Eocene. Organization of the Geological Society of Pennsylvania. William Aiken's ideas on mountain uplift. Survey of Maryland by J. T. Ducatel and J. H. Alexander. Sketch of Ducatel. Featherstonhaugh's survey of the country between the Missouri and Red rivers; of the Coteau des Prairies. H. D. Rogers's geological survey of New Jersey. Rogers's views on the formation of the gorge at Niagara. Sketch of Rogers. J. G. Percival and the geological survey of Connecticut. Work of S. P. Hildreth in Ohio. Mather's geological survey of Ohio. Work of S. P. Hildreth, John Locke, Caleb Briggs, J. W. Foster, and Charles Whittlesey in Ohio. Sketch of W. W. Mather. Mather's Elements of Geology. Work of John R. Cotting in Georgia. Abraham Gesner's Geology and Mineralogy of Nova Scotia. Gesner's views on the drift. Sketch of Gesner. Work of C. U. Shepard

Page.

in Illinois. Work of W. B. Rogers in Virginia. Rogers's lack of facilities for work. Sketch of W. B. Rogers. State Geological Survey of New York. State Geological Survey of Pennsylvania. The Wilkes Exploring Expedition. C. T. Jackson's survey of Maine; of Rhode Island. Jackson's views on the drift. J. C. Booth's geological survey of Delaware. D. D. Owen's geological survey of Indiana. Sketch of D. D. Owen. Owen's survey of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois. Gesner's work in New Brunswick. Conrad's work on the Tertiary. Work of James T. Hodge in southern Atlantic States. Sketch of Conrad. Conrad's ideas concerning the drift. Views of George E. Hayes. C. T. Jackson's survey of New Hampshire. Douglass Houghton's work in Michigan. Sketch of Houghton.

CHAPTER IV.

The Era of State Surveys, Second decade, 1840–1849 363

Generalities. Effect of the panic of 1836 upon the establishment of State surveys. Enumeration of workers. Founding of the Smithsonian Institution. Louis Agassiz's glacial theory. First geological model, by R. C. Taylor. Work of Gerard Troost in Tennessee. Edward Hitchcock on drift phenomena in North America. T. A. Conrad's work in Florida. D. D. Owen on the geology of the Western States. H. D. and W. B. Rogers on Appalachian structures. Views of Rogers brothers as to the origin of the Appalachians. H. D. Rogers on the formation of coal. W. B. Rogers on thermal springs. J. P. Couthouy on coral growth. W. Byrd Powell's work in the Fourche Cove region of Arkansas. State Geological Survey of New York. Work of Mather, Emmons, Vanuxem, and Hall. Sketch of James Hall. Hall's work in Ohio. Hall's views concerning Niagara. Establishment of the Geological Survey of Canada under W. E. Logan. Issachar Cozzens on the geology of New York. Byrem Lawrence's Geology of the Western States. Work of Edmund Ruffin and Michael Tuomey in South Carolina. Sketch of Tuomey. J. D. Dana's views on metamorphism. Edward Hitchcock on the trap tufa of the Connecticut Valley and inclined strata. H. D. Rogers on the atmosphere of the coal period. Lardner Vanuxem on changes in the earth's atmosphere. Work of C. B. Adams in Vermont. Sketch of Adams. Sketch of Zadock Thompson. Hitchcock's description of the Richmond bowlder train. W. W. Mather on the physical geology of the United States. Conrad's Medial Tertiary of North America. Geological observations of David Christy. Explorations in New Mexico by F. A. Wislizenus. Amos Binney's views on the Loess. Dana on the Geological Results of the Earth's Contractions. Sketch of J. D. Dana. Views of H. D. and W. B. Rogers on the Richmond bowlder train. Views of J. B. Perry and E. R. Benton on the same. Final report of Michael Tuomey on the geology of South Carolina. Tuomey's survey of Alabama. F. S. Holmes on the geology of Charleston and vicinity. Howard Stansbury's explorations in Utah. Work of D. D. Owen in the Chippewa land district, and in Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota. First description of vertebrate fossils from the Bad Lands. Work of C. T. Jackson in Michigan. Louis Agassiz's Physical Characters of Lake Superior. Sketch of Agassiz. Work of J. W. Foster and J. D. Whitney in Michigan. James Hall's report on the formations of Lake Superior. His attempt to show the equivalency of the formations of New York with those of Europe. E. Desor on the drift. J. D. Dana and the Wilkes Exploring Expedition. Dana's views on coral islands; on vulcanology. P. T. Tyson's work in California. James Higgins's work in Maryland. P. T. Tyson's work in Maryland.

CHAPTER V.

Page.
The Era of State Surveys, Third decade, 1850–1859 429

Generalities. New workers. Work of John Millington and B. L. C. Wailes in Mississippi. Work of Ebenezer Emmons in North Carolina. J. G. Norwood's work in Illinois. Second attempt at geological survey of Indiana. G. G. Shumard's work in region of the Red River of Louisiana. Ideas of O. P. Hubbard and Dana relative to subaerial erosion. John B. Trask's geological survey of California. G. C. Swallow's geological survey of Missouri. J. D. Whitney's Metallic Wealth of the United States; his views relative to silver as a monetary standard. Whitney on the changes in the structure and composition of mineral veins. Work of Lewis Harper and Eugene W. Hilgard in Mississippi. Work of Edward Daniels in Wisconsin. J. G. Percival's geological survey of Wisconsin. D. D. Owen's geological survey of Kentucky. Work of G. G. Shumard in connection with Pope's expedition along the line of the thirty-second parallel. Oscar M. Lieber's work in South Carolina; his views regarding mineral veins. First edition of John W. Dawson's Acadian Geology. Dawson's work in Nova Scotia. Jules Marcou's geological map of the United States. Work of Jules Marcou, W. P. Blake, Thomas Antisell, James Schiel, and J. S. Newberry in connection with the Pacific Railroad surveys. Sketch of Thomas Antisell. Work of John Evans in Washington and Oregon. Work of George Gibbs in Washington. G. C. Swallow's survey of the southwest branch of the Pacific Railroad. J. M. Safford's work in Tennessee. Richard O. Currey's Sketch of the Geology of Tennessee. Ebenezer Emmons's American Geology. William Kitchell's geological survey of New Jersey. W. H. Emory's Mexican Boundary Survey. J. P. Lesley's Manual of Coal; his Iron Manufacturer's Guide. Edward Hitchcock's Illustrations of Surface Geology; his Geology of the Globe. J. D. Dana on the Plan of Development of North America. The finding of Paradoxides. Views of Joseph Le Conte on coral growth. James Hall's geological survey of Iowa. Controversy between Hall and Meek. Hall's views regarding the treeless character of the prairies. Work of J. D. Whitney in Iowa. Whitney's views regarding the origin of the Potsdam sandstone. Edward Hitchcock's Geology of Vermont; his views on metamorphism and the origin of the drift. Geological survey of Wisconsin under James Hall, E. S. Carr, and Edward Daniels. Whitney's work on the lead-bearing region of Wisconsin. Richard Owen's Geology of the Globe. William E. Logan's proposed subdivisions of the Laurentian. The Ives-Newberry expedition up the Colorado River. J. S. Newberry's views regarding the Grand Canyon of the Colorado; his work with the Macomb expedition. Sketch of Newberry. Work of D. D. Owen and Richard Owen in Arkansas. E. W. Hilgard's geological survey of Mississippi. The Kansas Permian controversy. B. F. Shumard on the Permian of New Mexico. Meek and Hayden on the Triassic in Kansas and Nebraska. B. F. Shumard's geological survey of Texas. Safford on unconformability in Tennessee. Final reports of H. D. Rogers on the geology of Pennsylvania. Amos H. Worthen's work in Illinois. J. D. Whitney's views regarding the origin of the lead ores of the Mississippi Valley. Leo Lesquereux's paleobotanical work in Illinois. Sketch of Amos H. Worthen. Sketch of Leo Lesquereux. Work of Henry Y. Hind in the Winnipeg country. James Hall's views on sedimentation and mountain building. Work of Henry Engelmann in Utah.

CHAPTER VI.

Page
The Era of State Surveys, Fourth decade, 1860–1869 503

Effect of civil war on State surveys. Literature of the period. New workers. R. Thomassy's Geologie Pratique de la Louisiane. Alexander Winchell's work in Michigan. Sketch of Winchell. Work of D. D. Owen and Richard Owen in Indiana. Ideas of W. B. Rogers and Louis Agassiz on subsidence and deposition. Work of Francis Moore and S. B. Buckley in Texas. Appointment of J. W. Glenn, State geologist of Texas. Edward Hitchcock's views on the metamorphism of conglomerates. Natural history survey of Maine. First suggestion of a second drift period. J. S. Newberry's views on glaciation. J. P. Lesley on mountain structure; on uplift and erosion. J. D. Whitney's geological survey of California. Logan's Geology of Canada. Sketch of William E. Logan. Work of Alexander Murray and James P. Howley in Newfoundland. J. W. Dawson's views on glaciation; his address before the Natural History Society of Montreal. Raphael Pumpelly's work in China. George H. Cook's survey of New Jersey. Sketch of Cook. Work of B. F. Mudge in Kansas. Sketch of Mudge. G. C. Swallow's geological survey of Kansas. Sketch of Swallow. N. S. Shaler's views on continental uplift. Work of C. F. Hartt in Brazil. Work of H. E. Eames in Minnesota. Eugene W. Hilgard's views on the drift. W. C. Kerr's geological survey of North Carolina. John L. Le Conte's work on the Union Pacific Railroad. Charles A. White's geological survey of Iowa. J. M. Safford's final report on the geology of Tennessee. E. W. Hilgard's work in Louisiana. Alexander Winchell's survey of Michigan; work of T. B. Brooks. Sketch of Brooks. Work of Raphael Pumpelly and Carl Rominger. Sketch of Rominger. Newberry's geological survey of Ohio. The Newberry-Whittlesey controversy. Views of Dr. E. Andrews on the glacial drift. Views of J. S. Newberry on the glacial drift. Edward Orton's appointment as State geologist of Ohio. Sketch of Orton. Geological survey of Indiana under E. S. Cox. Geological survey of Canada under Selwyn.

CHAPTER VII.

The Era of National Surveys or Fifth era of State Surveys, 1870–1879 551

Effect of the civil war on western exploration. New expeditions and new workers. Work of George Little in Georgia. Work of John Murrish in Wisconsin. O. C. Marsh's first expedition into the West. Albert Hager's work in Missouri. Geological survey of Missouri under Raphael Pumpelly. Views of George Catlin on geology. F. V. Hopkins on the geology of Louisiana. Joseph Le Conte's ideas on mountain making; on continental uplift. Sketch of Le Conte. E. W. Hilgard's work at Petite Anse, Louisiana. W. C. Kerr on effect of earth's rotation. Kerr's work in North Carolina. Sketch of Kerr. Eugene A. Smith's work in Alabama. Second geological survey of Kentucky. J. W. Powell's exploration of the Grand Canyon of the Colorado. J. P. Lesley on origin of iron ores and on denudation. Work of N. H. Winchell, Henry Newton, and W. P. Jenny in the Black Hills. Petrographic work of J. H. Caswell. I. A. Lapham's geological work in Wisconsin. T. C. Chamberlin's survey of Wisconsin. R. D. Irving's work in Wisconsin. Third edition of J. W. Dawson's Acadian Geology. Sketch of Dawson. J. D. Whitney's Auriferous Gravels. Whitney's Climatic Changes. Second geological survey of Pennsylvania. Work of I. C. White, J. J. Stevenson, and E. W. Claypole on Pennsylvania survey. Sketch of J. P. Lesley. Work

Page.

of F. V. Hayden and F. B. Meek in the Bad Lands. Meek's section of the Cretaceous. Hayden's work on the upper Missouri; with G. K. Warren in the Sioux country, and in the Black Hills. Work of Meek and Hayden in Kansas. Hayden with the Raynolds expedition to the headwaters of the Missouri. Summary of Hayden's early work. Hayden's second expedition to the Bad Lands. United States geological and geographical surveys under F. V. Hayden. Work of Hayden survey in Nebraska, Wyoming, Colorado, and New Mexico; in Wyoming and contiguous territories; in Montana and the Yellowstone National Park; in Montana; in Colorado; in Wyoming and the Yellowstone Park. Sketch of F. V. Hayden. Sketch of F. B. Meek. The Fortieth Parallel Survey under Clarence King. Sketch of King. Surveys West of the One Hundredth Meridian under Lieut. George M. Wheeler. G. K. Gilbert's work in the Great Basin. Work of A. R. Marvine, E. E. Howell, and J. J. Stevenson with the Wheeler survey. United States geological and geographical surveys under J. W. Powell. Powell's geology of the Uinta Mountains. C. E. Dutton's work on the high plateaus of Utah. G. K. Gilbert's work in the Henry Mountains. Sketch of Powell. Consolidation of all the national geological surveys.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Fossil Footprints of the Connecticut Valley 625

Announcement by Edward Hitchcock of first discovery by Dexter Marsh and James Deane; supposed bird nature of; comparison of tracks with those of New Zealand dinornis; views of foreign geologists relative to; Doctor Deane's first publication on; discovery by Pliny Moody, of South Hadley; suggestion as to saurian nature of; suggestion by Doctor Deane as to batrachian nature of; Edward Hitchcock's catalogue of track-making animals. Discovery of footprints in Carboniferous sandstone in Pennsylvania. James Deane's recognition of reptilian footprints. Edward Hitchcock's Ichnology of New England. Hitchcock's announcement of the quadrupedal nature of footprints. The views of Roswell Field, of Greenfield, Mass. Finding of Anchisaurus colurus. Sketch of Dr. James Deane.

CHAPTER IX.

The Eozoon Question 635

First announcement by William Logan of fossils in Laurentian rocks. Views of J. W. Dawson and W. B. Carpenter on the same. Work of William King and T. H. Rowney on Eozoon. Carpenter's reply to views of King and Rowney. Discovery of supposed Eozoon in the Azoic limestone of Bavaria, by F. von Hochstetter, and in the Hercynian gneisses, by Gümbel. William Logan's announcement of the finding of Eozoon remains in the township of Tudor, Canada. Announcement by King and Rowney of the finding of Eozoonal structures in the serpentine marble of Skye. Views of Max Schultze and H. J. Carter. W. B. Carpenter's reply to the views of Carter. Views of Carl Moebius, and Dawson's reply thereto. Studies of Burbank and Perry on the Eozoonal limestone in Massachusetts. Views of T. G. Bonney. Work of J. W. Gregory and H. J. Johnston-Lavis. Concluding remarks.

CHAPTER X.

The Laramie Question 647

First statement of the Laramie problem, by F. V. Hayden. Work of Leo Lesquereux, F. B. Meek, and E. D. Cope in 1872. Views of Lesquereux and Cope in 1873. Views of Clarence King. Views of J. S. Newberry

Page.

and J. J. Stevenson in 1874. Leo Lesquereux's reply to Newberry's criticism. F. V. Hayden's summary in 1875. A. C. Peale's views. Views of C. A. White in 1877. Views of Hayden in 1878. Views of Clarence King in 1878. L. F. Ward's Flora of the Laramie Group in 1885. Studies of C. A. White and T. W. Stanton in 1891; of F. H. Knowlton and T. W. Stanton in 1897.

CHAPTER XI.

The Taconic Question 659

First statement of the problem by Ebenezer Emmons. Studies by H. D. Rogers and James Hall. Review of the subject by Emmons, 1842–1844. Announcement of the finding of fossil crustaceans (trilobites) in the Black slate of Bald Mountain. Views of C. B. Adams in 1847. Report of committee on Taconic question in 1848. Hall's views on report of committee. Views of T. Sterry Hunt in 1849. Emmons's third presentation of subject in 1855. Finding of trilobites in the Black slates of West Georgia, Vt. Views of Elkanah Billings and Barrande. Writings of Jules Marcou. Views of Edward Hitchcock and A. D. Hager. Views of J. B. Perry in 1869. Work of Rev. A. Wing in 1870. Views of Elkanah Billings in 1872. Reply by Dana to Billings's statements. Dana's articles in the American Journal of Science. Finding of brachiopods in Taconic slates at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., by T. Nelson Dale. James Hall's views in 1884. Dana's views, 1885–1887. Work of C. D. Walcott in 1886. Discussion of the subject at the eighth meeting of the American Committee of the International Geological Congress in 1888. Conclusion.

Appendix A 677

Tables showing the general development of the geological column, as given in the principal text-books.

Appendix B 687

Brief biographical sketches of the principal workers in American geology.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

PLATES.

Page.

1. Maclure's Geological Map of the United States. Reduced from original in Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, VI, Pt. 2, 1809 ..... Frontispiece.
2. Portrait of Benjamin Silliman, professor of chemistry, Yale College. From a steel engraving by W. G. Jackman (D. Appleton & Co.) 215
3. Portrait of William Maclure, president of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences. (After T. Sully.) Engraved by D. C. Hinman 218
4. Portrait of Parker Cleaveland, professor of chemistry and mineralogy, Bowdoin College. (After T. Badger.) Engraved by J. C. Buttre 226
5. Maclure's Section across the Appalachians (colored). Reduced from original in Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, 1818 228
6. Portrait of Amos Eaton, professor of natural science, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XXXVIII, 1890 234
7. Eaton's Geological Segments. From Index to Geology of Northern States, 1820 251
8. Portrait of Ebenezer Emmons, State geologist of North Carolina. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLVIII, 1896 281
9. Portrait of Gerard Troost, State geologist of Tennessee. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLV, 1894 283
10. Portrait of Samuel George Morton, physician and paleontologist. From a steel engraving 288
11. Portrait of Charles Thomas Jackson, State geologist of Maine, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island. Redrawn from a woodcut by C. Weber 290
12. Portrait of Lardner Vanuxem, geologist of New York State survey. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLVI, 1895 292
13. Portrait of Edward Hitchcock, professor of geology, Amherst College. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLVII, 1895 307
14. Portrait of Henry Darwin Rogers, State geologist of Pennsylvania. From a steel engraving by L. S. Punderson, in Annual of Scientific Discovery, 1858 328
15. Portrait of William Williams Mather, geologist of New York State survey. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLIX, 1896 333
16. Portrait of William Barton Rogers, State geologist of Virginia. From a steel engraving by H. W. Smith, in Annual of Scientific Discovery, 1868 341
17. Portrait of Timothy Abbott Conrad, paleontologist. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLVII, 1895 344
18. Portrait of David Dale Owen, geologist. Redrawn from woodcut in Report on Geology of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota 350
19. Owen's Geological Sections (colored). Reduced from original in Report of Geological Reconnaissance of Chippewa Land District 351

Page.
20. Portrait of James Hall, State geologist of New York. From a photograph taken in 1891 379
21. Portrait of James Dwight Dana, professor of geology, Yale College. From a photograph 400
22. River terraces and drift bowlders in Massachusetts. From Hitchcock's Illustrations of Surface Geology, 1857 462
23. Portrait of John Strong Newberry, professor of geology, Columbia College, and State geologist of Ohio. From a steel engraving 480
24. Portrait of Alexander Winchell, professor of geology and paleontology, University of Michigan, and State geologist of Michigan. From a steel engraving in Bulletin of the Geological Society of America, III, 1891 505
25. Members of the geological survey of California, 1860. From a photograph 515
26. Portraits of James Richardson, Alexander Murray, and Sir William Logan. From photographs 517
27. Portrait of George Hammell Cook, State geologist of New Jersey. From a photograph taken about 1877 524
28. Portrait of Edward Orton, professor of geology, Ohio State University, and State geologist of Ohio. From a steel engraving 546
29. Portrait of Sir William Dawson, principal of McGill University. From a photograph 577
30. Hayden field party at La Veta Pass, August, 1877. From a photograph 592
31. Portrait of Ferdinand Vandiveer Hayden, director of U. S. geological survey of the Territories. From a photograph taken about 1876 604
32. Portrait of Fielding Bradford Meek, paleontologist. From a photograph by T. W. Smillie 607
33. Portrait of Clarence King, director of U. S. geological explorations of fortieth parallel. From a photograph 614
34. Portrait of John Wesley Powell, director of U. S. geographical and geological survey of the Rocky Mountain regions. From a photograph 623
35. The Moody Footmark Quarry, South Hadley, Mass. From Hitchcock's Ichnology of New England, 1858 625
36. The Appleton Cabinet. From Hitchcock's Ichnology of New England, 1858 630
37. Portrait of Sir William Logan, director of the geological survey of Canada. From a photograph 635

TEXT FIGURES.

1. Portrait of Archibald Bruce. From American Journal of Science, I, 1819 223
2. Portrait of Samuel Luther Dana. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, XLIX, 1896 229
3. Portrait of Samuel Latham Mitchill. From a steel engraving by Gimber and Dick 231
4. Map to illustrate Mitchill's theory of barriers 232
5. A geological transverse section, extending from Catskill Mountain to the Atlantic. From Eaton's Index to Geology of the Northern States, 1818 235
6. Portrait of Henry Rowe Schoolcraft. From a steel engraving by Illman & Sons 240
7. Map showing Schoolcraft's route in 1820 241
8. Map of Schoolcraft's travels in 1821 242
9. Schoolcraft's Section of Presque Isle. (Original colored.) From Narrative Journal of Travels, 1820 243

Page.

10. Map of Long's expeditions, 1819–20. From an account of an Expedition from Pittsburg to Rocky Mountains 246
11. Geological Sections from the Allegheny to the Rocky Mountains. (After Edwin James.) From report of Long's expedition, 1819–20 248
12. Portrait of Horace H. Hayden. From a painting, by permission of Maryland geological survey 259
13. Portrait of Thomas Cooper at age of 70. From a steel engraving by A. B. Durand 261
14. Supposed human footprints in limestone. (After D. D. Owen.) From American Journal of Science, XLIII, 1842 263
15. Portrait of Denison Olmsted. From a steel engraving by A. H. Ritchie. 267
16. Map showing Routes of Long's expedition of 1823. From Narrative of an Expedition to the Source of St. Peters River 275
17. Sections of Snake Hill, Saratoga Lake. (After J. H. Steel.) From American Journal of Science, 1825 277
18. Portrait of Elisha Mitchell. From a steel engraving 285
19. Eaton's Transverse Sections of the Globe. From Geological Text-Book, 1832 297
20. Portrait of George William Featherstonhaugh. From American Geologist, April, 1889 303
21. Portrait of Jacob Green. From a steel engraving 305
22. Folded axes. (After Edward Hitchcock.) From Final Report on Geology of Massachusetts, II, 1841 314
23. Portrait of Isaac Lea. From a steel engraving in the Annual of Scientific Discovery, 1860 320
24. Portrait of Julius Timoleon Ducatel. From a painting, by permission of Maryland geological survey 323
25. Portrait of James Gates Percival. From an engraving 329
26. Portrait of Samuel Prescott Hildreth. From a photograph 331
27. Page from Mather's Elements of Geology for the use of schools, 1833. (Reproduced exact size) 334
28. Portrait of Abraham Gesner. From an engraving in Bulletin XIV, Natural History Society of New Brunswick, 1896 339
29. Portrait of Charles Upham Shepard. From a lithograph by Engelbach.. 340
30. Portrait of James Curtis Booth. From a photograph taken in 1876 349
31. Portrait of Bela Hubbard. From an engraving in Magazine of Western History 360
32. General section across the Western States. (After D. D. Owen.) From Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society of London, 1846 369
33. Portrait of James Hall. From a daguerreotype taken in 1843 381
34. Profile of the Island of New York. (After Issachar Cozzens.) From Geological History of Manhattan Island, 1843. (Original colored) 385
35. Portrait of Michael Tuomey. From a photograph taken about 1857 387
36. Portrait of Charles Baker Adams. From an enlarged engraving in American Geologist, XXXII, 1903 391
37. Ideal section of the crust of the earth. (After C. B. Adams.) From First Annual Report Geologist of Vermont, 1845 392
38. Portrait of Zadock Thompson. From a steel engraving by J. C. Buttre... 393
39. Richmond bowlder train. (After E. Hitchcock.) From American Journal of Science, XXXIX, 1845 394
40. Portrait of Frederick Adolphus Wislizenus. From a photograph 398
41. Portrait of James Dwight Dana. From a lithograph by R. Hoffman, 1857.. 401

Page.

42. Sketch map of Richmond bowlder train. (After E. R. Benton.) From Bulletin of Museum of Comparative Zoology, V, 1878 403
43. Portrait of John Bulkley Perry. From an engraving by H. W. Smith 405
44. Map showing Stansbury's routes in 1849–50 410
45. Map of areas surveyed by D. D. Owen in Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois in 1839, and the Chippewa land district in 1847 411
46. Owen's geological sections across Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois. From Report of Geological Exploration of Part of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois, 1839, pl. I 412
47. Trap dikes on Lake Superior. (After D. D. Owen.) From Report of Geological Survey of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota, 1852 414
48. Map showing area surveyed by Jackson, and Foster and Whitney, 1847–49 415
49. Portrait of Louis Agassiz. From a steel engraving by C. H. Jeens in Nature, April, 1879 417
50. Portrait of John Wells Foster. From a steel engraving 417
51. Portrait of Philip Thomas Tyson. From a painting, by permission of Maryland geological survey 428
52. Portrait of Joseph Granville Norwood, aged 67 years. From a photograph 433
53. Map showing routes of Marcy and Shumard, 1849–52 434
54. Portrait of Oliver Payson Hubbard. From a photograph 435
55. Portrait of John Boardman Trask. From a photograph 436
56. Portrait of Garland Carr Broadhead. From a photograph 438
57. Portrait of Oscar Montgomery Lieber. From a photograph 444
58. Portrait of Jules Marcou. From a photograph 448
59. Map showing principal routes of exploring parties in connection with Pacific railroad surveys 450
60. Portrait of William Phipps Blake. From a photograph 452
61. Portrait of Thomas Antisell. From a photograph 454
62. Portrait of George Gibbs. From a photograph 456
63. Portrait of James Merrill Safford. From a photograph 456
64. Section from the Cumberland to eastern base of Lookout Mountain. (After J. M. Safford.) From a Geological Reconnaissance of Tennessee, 1855 457
65. Paradoxides harlani. From a photograph of one of Green's casts 464
66. Portrait of Richard Owen. From a wood engraving in Popular Science Monthly, LI, 1897 475
67. Map showing routes traversed by Newberry with Lieutenant Ives and Captain Macomb, 1857–59 479
68. Portrait of Eugene Waldemar Hilgard. From a photograph taken January, 1875 484
69. Portrait of Benjamin Franklin Shumard. From an engraving in American Geologist, IV, 1889 486
70. Portrait of Amos Henry Worthen. From a photograph taken about 1863 498
71. Portrait of Leo Lesquereux. From a photograph taken in May, 1872 499
72. Portrait of Henry Engelmann. From a photograph 502
73. Portrait of Charles Henry Hitchcock. From a photograph taken about 1879 511
74. Portrait of Thomas Sterry Hunt. From an engraving in American Geologist, XI, 1893 520
75. Portrait of Raphael Pumpelly. From a photograph 523
76. Portrait of Benjamin Franklin Mudge. From a photograph 525

Page.

77. Portrait of George Clinton Swallow. From an engraving in American Geologist, XXIV, 1899 527
78. Portrait of Charles Frederick Hartt. From a photograph 529
79. Portraits of Charles Abiather White, Rush Emery, and Orestes St. John. From a photograph taken in 1869 534
80. Portrait of Thomas Brooks Brooks. From a photograph 537
81. Portrait of Carl Rominger. From a photograph taken about 1879 540
82. Portrait of Charles Whittlesey. From a photograph taken in December, 1875 543
83. Portrait of Edward Travers Cox. From a photograph 548
84. Portrait of Alfred Richard Cecil Selwyn. From a photograph 549
85. Portrait of George Little. From a photograph 552
86. Portrait of John Murrish. From a photograph 552
87. Portrait of Othniel Charles Marsh. From a photograph 554
88. Portrait of Joseph Le Conte. From a photograph 561
89. Portrait of Washington Caruthers Kerr. From a photograph 564
90. Portrait of Eugene Allen Smith. From a photograph 565
91. Portrait of John Wesley Powell. From a photograph 566
92. Ideal cross section of the Black Hills. (After Henry Newton.) From Report of Geology and Resources of the Black Hills of Dakota, 1880 .. 569
93. Portrait of Increase Allen Lapham. From a photograph taken in 1866 .. 570
94. Portrait of Thomas Crowder Chamberlin. From a photograph taken in 1884 571
95. Portrait of Roland Duer Irving. From an engraving in American Geologist, January, 1889 573
96. Portrait of J. Peter Lesley. From a photograph 584
97. Map showing routes of Raynolds's expedition in 1859–60, and area covered by Hayden's report 588
98. Portrait of Edward Drinker Cope, with a skull of *Loxolophodon cornutus*. From a photograph 595
99. Portrait of Fielding Bradford Meek. From a photograph by Julius Ulke, 1878 596
100. Portrait of Frank Howe Bradley. From a photograph 597
101. Portrait of Joseph Leidy. From an engraving in American Geologist, IX, No. 1 598
102. Portrait of Frederic Miller Endlich. From a photograph 599
103. Inverted beds of Jackass Creek. (After A. C. Peale.) From U. S. Geological Survey of Montana, 1872 599
104. Portrait of Albert Charles Peale. From a photograph taken in 1872 600
105. Portrait of Archibald Robertson Marvine. From a photograph taken in 1875 600
106. Sections across the Sierra La Sal. (After A. C. Peale.) From Report U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey, 1875 601
107. Sections across the Sierra El Late. (After W. H. Holmes.) From Report U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey, 1875 602
108. Portrait of William Henry Holmes. From a photograph taken about 1878 603
109. Showing areas surveyed and mapped by the Hayden Surveys, 1870–78 .. 604
110. Portrait of Robert Parr Whitfield. From a photograph 609
111. Map showing area covered by the Fortieth Parallel Survey 610
112. Portraits of Arnold Hague, Clarence King, and Samuel Franklin Emmons. From a photograph 612
113. Portrait of Grove Karl Gilbert. From a photograph taken about 1874 ... 616

Page

114. Section of the Pahranagat range at Silver Canyon. (After G. K. Gilbert.) From Geological Survey West of One Hundredth Meridian, III, 1875.. 617
115. Portrait of Edwin Eugene Howell. From a photograph taken about 1875. 618
116. Portrait of John James Stevenson. From a photograph..... 618
117. Map showing area surveyed and mapped by the Powell survey, 1875–80. 620
118. Portrait of Clarence Edward Dutton. From a photograph..... 621
119. Laccoliths. (After G. K. Gilbert.) From Geology of Henry Mountains, Utah, 1877..... 622
120. Packing flour..... 624
121. Fossil footprints. (After Edward Hitchcock.) From American Journal of Science, 1836..... 626
122. Portrait of James Deane. From a photograph..... 628
123. Skeleton of *Anchisaurus colurus* Marsh. From American Journal of Science, XLV, 1893..... 632
124. Supposed fossil from Laurentian limestone. (After W. E. Logan.) From Geology of Canada, 1863..... 635
125. Small weathered specimens of *Eozoon canadense*. (After J. W. Dawson.) From Chain of Life in Geological Time..... 636
126. Magnified group of canals in supplemental skeleton of Eozoon. (After J. W. Dawson.) From Chain of Life in Geological Time..... 637
127. Portion of Eozoon magnified 100 diameters, showing the original cell wall, with tubulation. (After W. B. Carpenter in Dawson's Chain of Life in Geological Time)..... 638
128. Magnified and restored section of a portion of *Eozoon canadense*. (After J. W. Dawson.) From Chain of Life in Geological Time..... 639
129. Diagram of Eozoonal rock at Côte St. Pierre. (After T. G. Bonney.) From Geological Magazine, II, 1895..... 644
130. Map of original Taconic area. (After Ebenezer Emmons)..... 660
131. Section of Taconic rocks. (After E. Emmons.) From Agriculture of New York, I..... 661
132. Sections explanatory of the Taconic system. (After E. Emmons.) From Natural History of New York, Pt. 4..... 662
133. *Atops trilineatus*. (After E. Emmons.) From Agriculture of New York, I, pl. VIII..... 664
134. *Elliptocephala asaphoides*. (After E. Emmons.) From Agriculture of New York, I, pl. IX..... 665
135. *Triarthrus beckii and eatoni*. (After James Hall.) From American Journal of Science, XXXIII, 1837–38, p. 140..... 666
136. *Olenus thompsoni*. (After James Hall.) From Tenth Annual Report Regents of the University of State of New York, 1857..... 667
137. *Olenus vermontana*. (After James Hall.) From Tenth Annual Report Regents of University of State of New York..... 668
138. Portrait of Elkanah Billings. From a photograph..... 669
139. Portrait of Charles Doolittle Walcott. From a photograph taken in 1891. 672
140. Tabular view of Taconic strata as arranged by E. Emmons. (After C. D. Walcott.) From American Journal of Science, XXXV, April, 1888.. 673
141. Section of Bald Mountain from the south. (After C. D. Walcott.) From American Journal of Science, XXXV, 1888..... 674

CHAPTER 1.

THE MACLUREAN ERA, 1785–1819.

In order that one may fully appreciate the conditions under which the early workers in geology in America labored, it is necessary to refer somewhat briefly to foreign workers and the general condition of the science at the time this history opens. A detailed statement is presumably unnecessary, the subject having been well covered by Lyell,[a] Geikie,[b] and Zittel.[c]

The literature extant at that time was not large, and was, moreover, for the most part quite inaccessible to the average American student. Libraries were few, small, and far between, and the workers, as a rule, men of moderate means who studied geology as a recreation or when the cares of their professions permitted.

Disregarding the cosmogonists—those who, to use a popular expression, did not allow what few facts they may have possessed to seriously hamper the flights of their imaginations—mention should be made of the writings of the French geologist, Güttard, during the period 1746–1765. Güttard studied the now well-known region of the Auvergne in central France, recognized the volcanic nature of the phenomena there displayed, and, though he fell into error when he attributed their origin to the combustion of petroleum or bitumen, he may, nevertheless, according to Doctor Geikie, be regarded as the founder of volcanic geology. Singularly enough, as it seems to-day, he failed to recognize the connection between volcanoes and basalt, and attributed the latter to crystallization from an aqueous solution. Güttard's papers were for many years lost sight of, but their value and interest have of late been made apparent by the author above quoted. Desmarest, who followed Güttard, corrected this error in his memoir on basalt, which appeared in 1774.

The geological results obtained by the Russian astronomical expedition under Pallas, in 1769, though important, could, for a long time at least, have had little effect on American workers, and then only through the writings of others. They were first published at St. Petersburg in German (1772–1776) and afterwards translated into French. Pallas taught, among other things, that a granite core was a

[a] Principles of Geology.
[b] The Founders of Geology.
[c] History of Geology and Paleontology.

constituent of all mountain ranges, and that the remains of the mammoth and other large animals found in Siberia and the Arctics were transported thence by floods from the region of the equator. This last idea, it will be noted, took firm hold on at least one of our American authors.

During 1779–1796 the Swiss naturalist, De Saussure, had put out three quarto volumes giving the results of his observations in the Alps, and Lehman and Fuchsel, during 1756–1770, had published important matter relative to the order of superposition of rocks. Fuchsel, unfortunately, wrote wholly in Latin, and though his observations were important they created little impression.

The two most prominent figures, and those whose views undoubtedly prevailed over all others, were the German, Werner, and the Englishman, Hutton. Indeed, our history opens in the very midst of a controversy between these two and their followers—between those who believed with Werner that the various rocks of the earth's crust were the result of a gradual precipitation from the waters of a universal ocean and who were not inaptly called *Neptunists*, and those who recognized the efficacy of igneous agencies and were therefore called *Plutonists*.

It is, of course, impossible to state in the majority of cases whence any writer may have drawn his inferences or inspiration. We may know the literature of any given period, but we have no means of knowing whether or not it was accessible to a writer or, indeed, if he was aware of its existence. Discoveries in science, like inventions, are rarely or never the work of a single brain, but are matters of growth. Such result from the gradual accumulation of facts or ideas, often seemingly wholly disconnected, but which some master mind takes at the proper time and molds to his uses.

What is commonly regarded as the first work on American geology was Johann David Schöpf's *Beitrage zur Mineralogischen Kenntniss von des Oestlichen Theils von Nord Amerika und seine Gebirge*, published in 1787. Schöpf came to America as a surgeon to the Hessian troops during the war of the Revolution, and immediately after the treaty of peace in 1783 made a tour throughout the Eastern States as far south as Florida.

Schöpf's Work on American Geology, 1787.

As a foreigner, whose results were published in Germany, Schöpf's work lies outside the limits of the present history. It may be said, however, that he noted the close similarity throughout all its parts of the flat lands (coastal plain) extending from the western end of Long Island to Florida, and that this was marked off from the hilly region to the northwest by a double series of waterfalls in all the rivers emptying into the Atlantic. Thus early was recognized the "fall line" as a physiographic feature of the American continent.

There are several brief papers of a mineralogical nature of an earlier date than Schöpf's, which may be mentioned. Thus, in the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences for 1785 are to be found the following titles:

Papers in Memoirs of American Academy, 1785.

An Account of the Oilstone found at Salisbury, by Samuel Webster; Yellow and Red Pigment, An account of, Found at Norton, by Samuel Deane; An Account of Several Strata of Earth and Shells on the Banks of the York River, Virginia, by Benjamin Lincoln; and Fossil Substance containing Vitriol and Sulphur, An Account of large quantities of, found at Lebanon, New Hampshire, by Jeremy Belknap.

Of more importance are two papers by David Jones and Caleb Alexander regarding the supposed volcanic nature of West River Mountain in Connecticut. Jones described in some detail the appearance of the mountain and the efforts of the natives, or *peasants*, as he called them, to discover thereon the gold which they imagined had been melted down to a solid body by the extreme heat of the eruption. The rock comprising the mountain was described as in many places much burned, softened, and dissolved by heat, with cinders and melted drops adhering and hanging down like small icicles, somewhat resembling in color the cinders of a furnace or black glass. While convinced that there had been volcanic explosions in the mountain, he regarded such as having taken place at least fifty years earlier, while the volcano itself, he thought, could not have been active perhaps "within the present nor past century."

Supposed Volcano in Connecticut.

Alexander wrote much more confidently:

> Once in winter there was an eruption. The years when the preceding eruptions happened I can not inform; the last was twenty-seven years since, which was the most violent eruption ever known in that place. It was toward the close of a dark evening when it was first perceived, being preceded by a louder noise than common; then directly was seen the fire, which was seen to burn for several hours.

After describing in some detail the appearance of the rock in the immediate vicinity of the spot from which the fire was supposed to have issued, Alexander went on to say:

> I am not able to determine whether there be anything of a sulphurous nature on this mountain, but this I dare affirm, that there have been several eruptions, but whether it may with propriety be called a volcano I know not. This determination is submitted to the judgment of gentlemen more acquainted with the nature of volcanoes than I can pretend to be.

In view of the definite nature of these statements, it may be well to anticipate, and to state here that in 1810 Col. George Gibbs visited the mountain, attracted by the published reports, and made known the results of his observations in Bruce's Mineralogical Journal. He found no trace whatever of any eruption nor other signs of volcanic activity, the "lava" reported proving to be hematite, an oxide of iron.

A paper by Robert McCauslin, read before the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia in 1789 and published in 1793, conveys a good idea of the crude condition of analytical chemistry at that date and enables one to well appreciate the difficulties under which the mineralogists labored. In describing a "mineral substance" found near the falls of Niagara, he wrote:

Condition of Analytical Chemistry in 1789.

In order to determine the nature of this substance, I made the following experiments:

Exp. 1st. I put an opaque piece, weighting fourteen grains, into the vitriolic acid diluted with three times its quantity of water, and let it remain there twenty-four hours, shaking it now and then. Not the least effervescence ensued, and on taking out the piece it weighed near one grain more than when it was put in, although care was taken to absorb the moisture which was upon its surface. This experiment was repeated with a shining piece, and with exactly the same result.

Exp. 2nd. When put into vinegar it did not produce the least effervescence. The vinegar having stood upon it for sometime, it was then poured off and spirit of vitriol dropped into it, yet not the least precipitation ensued.

That I might not be led into error by the vinegar not being good of its kind, I repeated these experiments with chalk; and as both effervescence and precipitation took place it was evident there was no defect in the vinegar.

Exp. 3rd. A small piece was exposed to the heat of a blacksmith's forge during fifteen hours. Upon taking it out and pouring water upon it no ebullition ensued; nevertheless it tasted like weak limewater; being then divided into two portions, a solution of mild fixed alkali was dropped into the first, and immediately a precipitation ensued. The second portion being exposed to the air in a tea cup soon contracted a changeable film, which next morning was become very thick, resembling in every respect that of limewater.

Exp. 4th. Hot water being poured on some of this substance reduced to powder and the whole suffered to settle, the clear liquor had not the taste of limewater as in the 3rd experiment; nevertheless a solution of mild fixed alkali being dropped into it as copious a precipitation ensued as when the earth had undergone calcination.

As I had neither the nitrous nor muriatic acids, nor even caustic fixed alkali, I had it not in my power to make any trials with them.

From these experiments we may perhaps be authorized to draw the following conclusions:

1st. That this concrete is not an alkaline earth, as it is not affected either by the vitriolic or the vegetable acids.

2ndly. We may with more probability say that it is a combination of an acid with a calcareous earth, and that it might with propriety be ranked amongst the selenites. This supposition is founded on the following reasons: First, it appears from the fourth experiment that it is practically soluble in water, and that its earth can be precipitated by a mild fixed alkali; secondly, the third experiment shews evidently that its earth is of the calcareous kind, as appears by the styptic taste and changeable-colored film, agreeing exactly with common limewater. It seems probable that the vehemence of the fire had in part expelled the acid, leaving a portion of the mass in the state of quicklime.

Of more direct geological bearing is a letter from Benjamin De Witt to the Philadelphia Academy, printed in the second volume (1793)

of their Transactions. He mentioned the occurrence of iron ore, gypsum, calcareous petrifactions, red, slaty stones, soft clay, a white fossil substance, rock crystal, a curious annular stone, and sixty-four specimens of some varieties of stone found on the shore of Lake Ontario. Discussing this last occurrence, he wrote:

De Witt on Origin of the Drift, 1793.

> Now, it is almost impossible to believe that so great a variety of stones should be naturally formed in one place and of the same species of earth. They must, therefore, have been conveyed there by some extraordinary means. I am inclined to believe that this may have been effected by some mighty convulsion of nature, such as an earthquake or eruption; and perhaps this vast lake may be considered as one of those great fountains of the deep which were broken up when our earth was deluged with water, thereby producing that confusion and disorder in the composition of its surface which evidently seems to exist.

So far as I am aware, this is the first recognition of or attempt to account for the glacial drift, although its glacial character was of course undreamed of.

It is perhaps not strange that, with the cosmogonists not yet fully out of the field, the "many-sided" Franklin should have indulged in theories relative to the earth's history, nor that such were, at the time, thought worthy of consideration. In 1788, in a letter to the Abbé Soulavie, he suggested that the earth may not be solid to the core, but that the outer portion or shell is floating, as it were, on an internal fluid more dense than any solids of which we have knowledge. He was led to this view from seeing at the base of one of the Derbyshire, England, mountains, "oyster shells mixed in the stones," a condition of affairs indicating an elevation of this portion of the land above the sea level and which he conceived could not take place were the earth solid. He wrote:

Benjamin Franklin's Theories, 1788.

> Thus the surface of the globe would be a shell, capable of being broken and disordered by any violent movements of the fluid on which it rested. And as air has been compressed by art so as to be twice as dense as water, in which case if such air and water could be contained in a strong glass vessel the air would be seen to take the lowest place and the water to float above and upon it; and as we know not yet the degree of density to which air may be compressed; and M. Amontons calculated, that its density increasing as it approached the center in the same proportion as above the surface, it would be at the depth of —— leagues heavier than gold, possibly the dense fluid occupying the internal parts of the globe might be air compressed. And as the force of expansion in dense air when heated is in proportion to its density; this central air might afford another agent to move the surface, as well as be of use in keeping alive the subterraneous fires; though as you observe, the sudden rarefaction of water coming into contact with those fires may also be an agent sufficiently strong for that purpose when acting between the incumbent earth and the fluid on which it rests.
>
> If one might indulge imagination in supposing how such a globe was formed, I should conceive that all the elements in separate particles being originally mixed in confusion and occupying a greater space, they would, as soon as the Almighty fiat ordained gravity or the mutual attraction of certain parts and the mutual repulsion

of other parts to exist, all move toward their common center; that the air being a fluid whose parts repel each other, though drawn to the common center by their gravity, would be densest toward the center and rarer as more remote; consequently all matters lighter than the central part of that air and immersed in it would recede from the center and rise till they arrived at that region of the air which was of the same specific gravity with themselves where they would rest; while other matter mixed with the lighter air would descend, and the two meeting would form the shell of the first earth, leaving the upper atmosphere quite clear. The original movement of the parts toward their common center would naturally form a whirl there, which would continue in the turning of the new-formed globe upon its axis, and the greatest diameter of the shell would be in its equator. If by any accident afterwards the axis should be changed, the dense internal fluid by altering its form must burst the shell and throw all its substance into the confusion in which we find it.

Again, in a letter to Mr. Bodoin, under date of 1790, he said:

Let me add another question or two, not relating, indeed, to magnetism, but, however, to the theory of the earth.

Is not the finding of great quantities of shells and bones of animals (natural to hot climates) in the cold ones of our present world some proof that its present poles have been changed? Is not the supposition that the poles have been changed the easiest way of accounting for the deluge by getting rid of the old difficulty how to dispose of its waters after it was over? Since, if the poles were again to be changed and placed in the present equator, the sea would fall there about 15 miles in height and rise as much in the present polar regions, and the effect would be proportionable if the new poles were placed anywhere between the present and the equator.

Does not the apparent wrack of the surface of this globe, thrown up into long ridges of mountains, with strata in various proportions, make it probable that its internal mass is a fluid, but a fluid so dense as to float the heaviest of our substances? Do we know the limit of condensation air is capable of? Supposing it to grow denser within the surface in the same proportion nearly as we find it does without, at what depth may it be equal in density with gold?

Can we easily conceive how the strata of the earth could have been so deranged if it had not been a mere shell supported by a heavier fluid? Would not such a supposed internal fluid globe be immediately sensible of a change in the situation of the earth's axis, alter its form, and thereby burst the shell and throw up parts of it above the rest?

As if we would alter the proportion of the fluid contained in the shell of an egg and place its longest diameter where its shortest now is the shell must break if the whole internal substance were as solid and hard as the shell.

Might not a wave by any means raised in this supposed internal ocean of extremely dense fluid, raise in some degree as it passes the present shell of incumbent earth and break it in some places, as in earthquakes? And may not the progress of such wave and the disorders it occasions among the solids of the shell account for the rumbling sound being first heard at a distance, augmenting as it approaches, and gradually dying away as it proceeds? A circumstance observed by the inhabitants of South America in their last great earthquake—that noise coming from a place some degrees north of Lima and being traced by enquiry quite down to Buenos Ayres, proceeding regularly from north to south at the rate of —— leagues per minute, as I was informed by a very ingenious Peruvian whom I met in Paris.

Franklin was not the only one of our statesmen who at that time felt at liberty to indulge in study and speculation on scientific subjects. Thomas Jefferson, when he came to Philadelphia to be inaugurated Vice-President in 1797, brought with him a collection of fossil bones from the western part of Virginia, and the manuscript of a memoir upon them, which he read before the American Philosophical Society, of which he had been elected president the preceding year.[a] And again in 1801, when Congress was vainly trying to untangle the difficulties arising from the tie vote between Jefferson and Burr, when every politician at the Capitol was busy with schemes and counter-schemes, Jefferson was corresponding with Doctor Wistar in regard to some bones of the mammoth which he had just procured from Shawangunk, in New York; and still again, in 1808, when the excitement over the embargo was highest, and when every day brought fresh denunciation of him and his policy, he was carrying on his geological studies in the White House itself. Under his direction upward of three hundred specimens of fossil bones had been brought from the famous Big Bone Lick, of Kentucky, and spread in one of the large unfinished rooms of the Presidential Mansion. The exploration of this lick, it should be noted, was made at the private expense of Jefferson, through the agency of Gen. William Clarke, the western explorer.[b]

Jefferson as a Paleontologist, 1797.

The appearance of bones of animals of large size and now extinct, as described by Jefferson, naturally excited the attention of the curious, and numerous accounts of similar occurrences began to find their way into print. In the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, under date of 1802, is given an abstract of a communication by Martin Duvalde regarding the finding of bones supposed to be those of an elephant in the Opelousas country west of the Mississippi, i. e., in Louisiana.

Of greater interest, however, is a paper by the artist and naturalist, Rembrandt Peale, entitled Account of the Skeleton of the Mammoth, A Nondescript Carnivorous Animal of Immense Size Found in America. This was printed in London under date of 1802, and dedicated to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart., President of the Royal Society. The particular skeleton described was exhumed in the vicinity of Newburgh, New York, in 1801.[c] The animal was regarded by Peale as unquestionably carnivorous from

Peale's Account of the Mammoth, 1802.

[a] This paper was published in the Transactions of the Society, IV, 1799, as was also Doctor Wistar's more detailed description of the bones themselves.

[b] The Origin of the National Scientific and Educational Institutions of the United States, by G. Brown Goode.

[c] Sufficient material was found to form two skeletons, one of which was sent to London and the other to Philadelphia, where it was subsequently destroyed by fire.

the structure of the teeth and jaw, and he concluded his description with a quotation from Doctor Dunter:

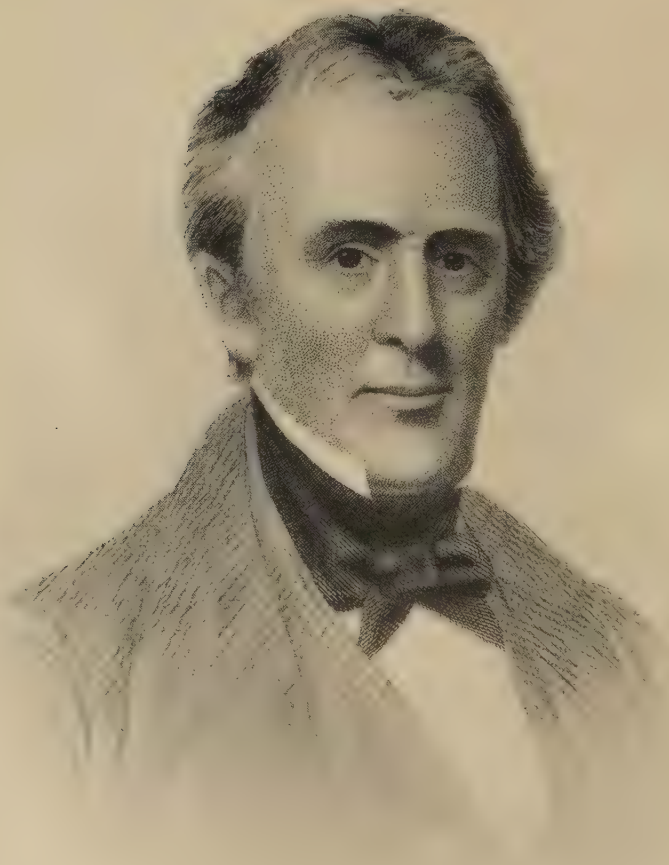
> If this animal was indeed carnivorous, which I believe can not be doubted, though we may as philosophers regret it, as men we cannot but thank Heaven that its whole generation is probably extinct.[a]

Turning once more to the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, we find in 1799 Thomas P. Smith giving an account of "crystalline basalts" found in the Conewago Hills, near Elizabethtown in Pennsylvania. The "crystals" were described as generally tetrahedral and of very fine grain. The massive, noncolumnar form was spoken of as amorphous, but it "has generally a very strong tendency to crystallize." Crystallized granite in predominating tetrahedral forms was also described. In the same transactions (1807) S. Godon made certain observations for a mineralogical map of Maryland, in which he noted the occurrence of gneiss and greenstone in the the vicinity of Washington, and the finding of "fossil bodies," shells, and fossil woods in a ravine near Rock Creek Church. The city itself was rightly described as built on alluvial land, Rock Creek forming the boundary between the primary and alluvial soil.

Smith's Account of the Conewago Hills, 1799.

In February of this same year B. H. Latrobe read before the society a paper describing the geographic distribution of the sand rock quarried at Aquia Creek on the Potomac, and used in some of the public buildings of Washington. The marked cross-bedding, so prominent a feature in the stone, he ascribed to wind action. A fact of more geological importance is, however, his recognition of the "fall line"—of the fact that a line drawn along the lower falls of our rivers is the ancient line of the seacoast from New York to the southwest, and indicates a higher ocean level of some 120 feet. Schöpf, it will be remem-

[a] The first mention of bones of the American mammoth upon record appears to be that made by Dr. Cotton Mather, of Boston, in a paper communicated to the Royal Society in 1714. The object of this worthy divine seems to have been to corroborate, by the discovery of the bones, the account given in Scripture of a race of antediluvian giants. He inclines to this opinion from the circumstance that bones have been dug up in America of an enormous size, and yet resembling in their formation those of the human body. These bones, he states, were found in 1705 near Albany, on the Hudson. Among them was a grinder weighing 4¾ pounds; another tooth, broad and flat, like an incisor; a third like the eye tooth of man when worn away by mastication, and a bone, supposed to be that of the thigh, which was 17 feet in length. The ground for 75 feet around the spot where these bones were discovered he asserts to have been of a different color and substance from the surrounding, a difference which he attributes to the effects produced by the rotting of the flesh of the animal. Some of these bones were found at a distance of 50 leagues from the sea, and at a great depth in the earth. An account, so manifestly tinctured by credulity and evincing such entire ignorance of anatomy, excited but little attention in the scientific world, and scarce any further notice of these bones can be found for nearly thirty years.—An Account of the Fossil Bones of the Great American Mammoth, by John Ward, M. D., in Boston Journal of Philosophy, I, 1823–24, pp. 263, 264.



BENJAMIN SILLIMAN.
Professor of Chemistry, Yale College.

bered, recognized this fall line, though it does not appear that he put a like interpretation upon the phenomenon.

At this date, it is well to note, none of the sciences were taught in the colleges and other institutions of learning in America. Indeed, the general trend of public opinion was decidedly against the study of geology or the investigation of any question which might lead to the discovery of supposed inconsistencies in the Mosaic account of creation or to conclusions in any degree out of harmony therewith. The movement, therefore, by Professor Dwight in 1798 toward the establishment in Yale College of a department for the teaching of these subjects, was of the greatest importance and of far-reaching consequences. This movement culminated in 1802 with the appointment of Benjamin Silliman to the professorship of chemistry and natural science in that institution. Silliman was at that time about twenty-two years of age, only recently admitted to the bar, and was serving as a tutor in law, with not even the most rudimentary knowledge of the science he was to teach. He wrote:

Appointment of Benjamin Silliman at Yale, 1802.

> The appointment was of course the cause of wonder to all and of cavil to political enemies of the college. Although I persevered in my legal studies * * * I soon after the confidential communication of President Dwight [informing him of his probable appointment] obtained a few books on chemistry and kept them secluded in my secretary, occasionally reading in them privately. This reading did not profit me much. Some general principles were intelligible, but it became at once obvious to me that to see and perform experiments and to become familiar with many substances was indispensable to any progress in chemistry, and of course I must resort to Philadelphia, which presented more advantage to science than any other place in our country.[a]

To Philadelphia he accordingly went in the autumn of 1802, remaining for nearly five months attending the lectures on chemistry given by Dr. James Woodhouse in the Medical School of Philadelphia. His own first lecture at Yale was delivered April 4, 1804, while in his twenty-fifth year, in a room in Mr. Tuttle's building on Chapel street.

Few geological papers bear Silliman's name, and he is better known as a teacher and public lecturer. That which, however, has tended more than anything else to keep him in constant remembrance is his American Journal of Science, founded in 1818, some eight years after the suspension of the American Journal of Mineralogy, to be noted later. The publication has continued down to the present day, and it is therefore one of the oldest and perhaps the most important geological periodical extant in America.

Silliman resigned his professorship in 1849 and died on December 24, 1864, having through his own efforts as a teacher, but more particularly through his personal influence as a writer and lecturer, probably done more to advance the science of geology than any man of his day. Nevertheless, looking down the vista of a hundred years of

[a] G. P. Fisher, Life of B. Silliman. New York, 1866.

advancement, the spectacle of this young lawyer secluding in his desk sundry books which he read privately in order to fit himself for the position of a professorship in Yale is edifying to say the least.

On January 1, 1800, the Connecticut Academy of Sciences had addressed a circular letter to every town in the State, containing subjects of inquiry arranged under thirty-two distinct heads, and requesting answers. To the fifth of these inquiries Silliman responded in 1806 with a sketch of the mineralogy of the town of New Haven. This was published in the Transactions of the Society in 1810, and is of interest as being the first attempt at a geological description of the region, as well as being Silliman's first attempt at a geological survey.

Silliman's Mineralogy of New Haven, 1806.

With much laborious argument he showed that the town of New Haven is itself situated on an alluvial plain. East Rock he described as a whinstone, trap, or basalt, identical with that from the Salisbury Craig near Edinburgh, Scotland.

> The stone is reckoned among the argillaceous clays by some mineralogists and by others among the siliceous. The predominant ingredient is certainly silex or flinty earth, although when breathed upon it emits the smell of clay, which would induce one to refer it to the argillaceous family.

He would account for its presence on the supposition that it had—

> actually been melted in the bowels of the earth and ejected among the superior strata by the force of subterraneous fire, but never erupted like lava, cooling under the pressure of the superincumbent strata and therefore compact or nonvesicular, its present form being due to erosion.

Thus, at this early date and with a very limited amount of experience, Silliman was able to discriminate between effusive and deep-seated rocks. The rock resting upon the sandstone to the southeast of East Rock he found somewhat puzzling. "We must pronounce it granitic, although it is not a granite, and inclined to whin, although it is not a whinstone," he wrote, finally concluding that it formed a connecting link between granite and whinstone. Pine Rock and West Rock were also identified as whin rock and basalt resting upon sandstone. Quartz and sandstone found at Westfield and at the Derby pike were referred to as "micacious and magnesian schistus." He modestly concluded his paper by adding:

> If there are errors (in the above) they are not the result of indolent and remiss inquiry, but of deficient information or erroneous judgment.

In these same Transactions, under date of 1808, Silliman, in conjunction with Professor Kingsley, gave a very full account of the meteorite that fell in Weston, Connecticut, the year previous. This was the first really scientific description of the phenomena attending the fall of one of these bodies, as well as of its mineral nature, that had, up to that time, been given in America, and it attracted widespread attention. It was this account concerning which Jefferson is said to have remarked: "It is

The Weston Meteorite, 1808.

easier to believe that two Yankee professors will lie than to admit that stones can fall from heaven."[a]

Mease's Geological Account of the United States, 1807.

A pudgy duodecimo volume of some 500 pages, from the pen of a Dr. James Mease, and bearing the date 1807, may be mentioned here, not so much on account of the scientific value of its contents as the pretentiousness of its title: A Geological Account of the United States, Comprehending a short Description of their Animal, Vegetable, and Mineral Productions, Antiquities, and Curiosities. The portion really geological comprises some 30 pages, though 25 more are given up to a catalogue of minerals. The geological part is acknowledgedly a compilation from the writings of Volney, Mitchill, and others. The country is divided into (1) granitic region, (2) region of sandstone, (3) calcareous region, (4) region of sea sand, and (5) region of river alluvions, the boundaries of each of which are given in some detail. The truly scientific character of the work is shown by the following quotation taken from a description of the narrows of the Connecticut River.

> No living creature was ever known to pass through this narrow except an Indian woman, who was in a canoe, attempting to cross the river above it, but carelessly suffered herself to fall within the power of the current. Perceiving her danger she took a bottle of rum she had with her and drank the whole of it; then lay down in her canoe to meet her destiny. She marvelously went through safely, and was taken out of the canoe some miles below quite intoxicated.

Maclure on the Geology of the United States, 1809.

The year 1809 must ever be notable in the history of American geology, since it brought forth Maclure's Observations on the Geology of the United States, with a colored geological map of the region east of the Mississippi. With the exception of Güttard's mineralogical map of Louisiana and Canada, published in 1752, it was the earliest attempt at a geological map of America, and has caused its author to become known as the father of American geology and the William Smith of America.[b]

Maclure's personal history is not without interest in itself, and is worthy of note here on account of his relation to American science and as illustrating the conditions under which a man at that date could rise to prominence in geological circles with little or no preliminary training.

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[a] G. Brown Goode, Beginnings of American Science. This writer, however, discredits the authenticity of the report, regarding it one of the millions of slanders to which Jefferson was subjected in those days.

[b] See article by J. W. Judd, Geological Magazine, London, October, 1897, for account of Smith's work. What is believed by Professor Judd to be actually the first geological map in existence is one of Smith's, published in 1799. This bears the following title: A map of five miles around the City of Bath (England), on a scale of one inch and a half to the mile, from an actual survey, including all the new roads, with alterations and improvements to the present time (1799), printed for and sold by A. Taylor and W. Moyler, booksellers, Bath.

The map by Cuvier and Brongniart of the environs of Paris bears the date of 1809, which is the same as that of the first edition of Maclure's.

He was born at Ayr, Scotland, in 1763, and first came to America at the age of nineteen, with a view to mercantile employment, subsequently returning to London, where he commenced his career of commercial enterprise as a partner in the house of Miller, Hart & Co. He seems to have been remarkably successful, and accumulated a considerable fortune. In 1796 he again visited America and, it is stated, took the necessary steps for becoming an American citizen.

He was a liberal patron of science, and for twenty-two years, beginning with December, 1817, was president of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, to which institution he subsequently donated his valuable private library and some $20,000 in money.

After retiring from business, and prior to 1809, Maclure spent several years in England and on the continent of Europe, traversing the most interesting portions of the Old World from the Mediterranean Sea to the Baltic and from the British Isles to Bohemia. On returning to America he took up the important enterprise, noted above, of preparing a geological map of the United States. To accomplish this, in the language of his biographer:

> He went forth with his hammer in hand and his wallet on his shoulder, pursuing his researches in every direction, often amid pathless tracts and dreary solitudes, until he had crossed and recrossed the Allegheny Mountains no less than fifty times. He encountered all the privations of hunger, thirst, fatigue, and exposure, month after month and year after year, until his indomitable spirit had conquered every difficulty and crowned his enterprise with success.

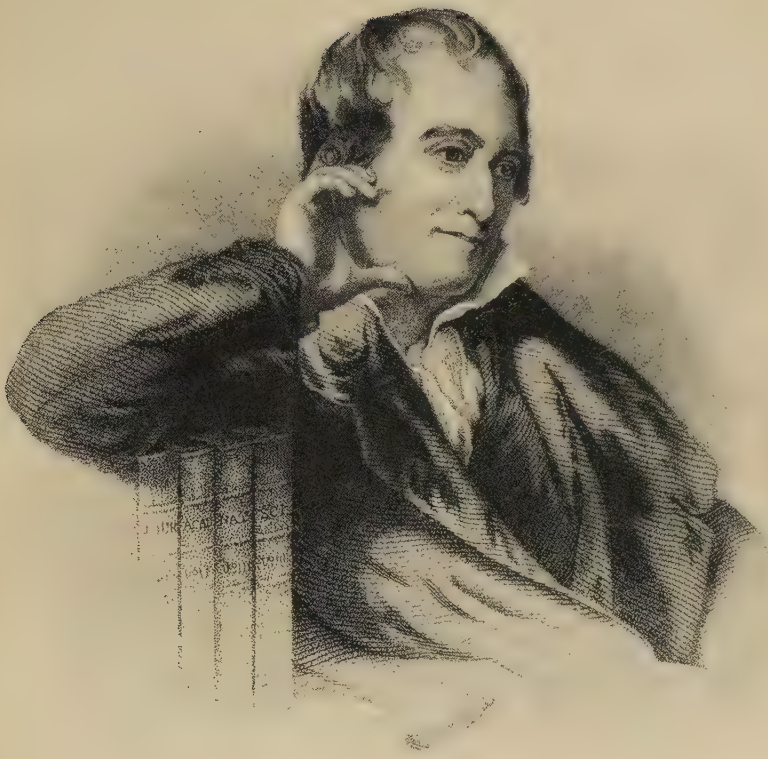
Like several of the scientists of his time, Maclure in 1824 became interested in the communistic society at New Harmony, Indiana, founded by the elder Owen. He was, however, seriously disappointed in the outcome and withdrew about 1827.

It was, presumably, during his connection with this association that he is quoted as refusing to invest money in real estate in the city of Philadelphia, saying:

> Land in the cities can no longer rise in value. The communistic society must prevail, and in the course of a few years Philadelphia must be deserted; those who live long enough may come back here and see the foxes looking out of the windows.

Opinions like this and those which follow are quoted here, not for the purpose of belittling Maclure in the least, but as showing how impossible it was at that time for any man to realize all that was in store for the United States.

The possibilities of railroad transportation were scarcely dreamed of, and mountain barriers and desert plains were looked upon as natural boundaries between various peoples. From an examination of maps of the United States, Maclure was inclined to divide the country into three distinct and separate parts, differing materially from each other in their relative situation and in their means of communication



WILLIAM MACLURE.

President of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences.

with the rest of the globe. The natural line of separation between the two main divisions was that formed by the Allegheny Mountains, which, from the poorness of the soil and the difficulty of access to market, he regarded as probably the last portion of the continent to become thickly inhabited.

To the west of this range was the Mississippi basin, which, in his view, was destined, on account of climate and soil, to become a country of immense agricultural capabilities. Traversed by only one great river, which is practically inaccessible to large ships of war, this section, inclosed by the Alleghenies on the east, the Rockies on the west, and the Lakes at the north, he felt to be guarded against invasion by the comparative weakness of their mountain neighbors and the impossibility of attack by sea. It would therefore be given over to a nation of agriculturalists, the rulers of which would by nature be deprived of even an excuse for keeping either a fleet or army such as had in the past always brought about the ruin of free and equal representative governments.

He wrote:

> On this earth or in the page of history it is probable no place can be found of the same extent so well calculated to perpetuate a free and equal representative government as the basin of the Mississippi, both from its physical advantages and the political constitutions on which the state of society is bottomed.

The people of the Atlantic slope, he felt, would, however, labor under entirely different conditions. Placed on an extensive coast, accessible at all points, with numerous rivers, they were liable to the depredations of a superior fleet and would naturally become a military people and involved in wars with European nations.

Maclure's observations, as already noted, were made in almost every State and Territory in the Union, from the river St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico, and the memoir which embraces the accumulated facts was submitted to the American Philosophical Society and printed in their Transactions in 1809. The map of this issue is interesting not alone for its geological coloring, but as showing the paucity of knowledge regarding the physical features of the continent. (See Plate 1.) Thus, a continuous range of mountains was figured as extending from northern Maine, along its western boundary, through eastern Vermont, western Massachusetts, across southeast New York and New Jersey to Pennsylvania. More or less parallel ranges were figured as extending down into northern Georgia, two of which turn toward the west, the more northerly of these terminating on the Ohio River just east of the Tennessee, and the other forming the divide between the Tennessee and the headwaters of the Tombigbee River. This last feature was, however, dropped out of the second issue, published in 1817.

The classification of the geological formations as adopted by Maclure in the later issue and as given below, was naturally largely Wernerian:

CLASS I. *Primitive rocks.*

(Sienna brown.)

(1) Granite, (2) Gneiss, (3) Mica slate, (4) Clay slate, (5) Primitive limestone, (6) Primitive trap, (7) Serpentine, (8) Porphyry, (9) Sienite, (10) Topaz-rock, (11) Quartz-rock, (12) Primitive flinty slate, (13) Primitive gypsum, (14) White stone.

CLASS II. *Transition rocks.*

(Carmine.)

(1) Transition limestone, (2) Transition trap, (3) Graywacke, (4) Transition flinty slate, (5) Transition gypsum.

CLASS III. *Floetz or secondary rocks.*

(Light blue.)

(1) (*dark blue*) Old red sandstone, or First sandstone formation, (2) First or oldest Floetz-limestone, (3) First or oldest Floetz gypsum, (4) Second or variegated sandstone, (5) Second Floetz gypsum, (6) Second Floetz limestone, (7) Third Floetz sandstone, (8) Rocksalt formation, (9) Chalk formation, (10) Floetz trap formation, (11) Independent coal formation, (12) Newest Floetz trap formation.

CLASS IV. *Alluvial rocks.*

(Yellow.)

(1) Peat, (2) Sand and gravel, (3) Loam, (4) Bog iron ore, (5) Nagel-fluh, (6) Calc tuff, (7) Calc sinter.

His alluvial class, it will be observed, occupied that portion of the Atlantic border beginning with Long Island and extending southward and westward to the western Louisiana line, comprising the beds now mapped by the U. S. Geological Survey as in part Cretaceous, but mainly Tertiary and Quaternary, and forming what is known, from a physiographic standpoint, as the Coastal Plain. The materials were described as mainly sands and clays, with considerable beds of shell deposits, and in New Jersey a greenish-blue marl (the Cretaceous glauconitic marls of recent workers), used as a manure. There were also noted deposits of iron ore and ochre. His Primitive Class was essentially the area mapped as Archean on the latest U. S. Geological Survey maps; the Transition, the narrow belt of sedimentaries along the Appalachian range including the various horizons from Algonkian to Carboniferous; and the Secondary class, all that area to the west now known to be occupied mainly by Carboniferous and Silurian rocks with smaller areas of Algonkian and Cambrian. The red-brown sandstones (Triassic) of the Eastern States were classed as Floetz or Secondary and called Old Red Sandstone. This sandstone he however separated by a deeper blue in the 1818 issue from the secondary rocks on the western side of the range, because of its having a slight dip and agreeing, in the absence of organic remains and its relative posi-

tion on the sides of many mountain ranges, with his Transition rocks. To the Transition beds he evidently referred all the crystalline limestones and dolomites (marbles) of western New England and the Southern States, together with quartzites and graywackes. The roofing slates, now regarded as of Cambrian and Silurian ages, he classed as secondary. The line between the Primitive and Transition may "perhaps be marked by the presence or absence of organic remains, or of aggregates of rounded particles the result of former decomposition, in part, by the more or less crystalline texture and its approach toward deposition."

To the northwest of the Transition belt lies an immense area of secondary rocks, comprising, as above noted, the horizontal limestones and slates skirting Lake Champlain about Ticonderoga and Crown Point. There are also "immense beds of secondary limestones, of all shades from a light blue to black, intercepted in some places by extensive tracts of sandstone and other secondary aggregates," which "appear to constitute the foundation of this formation, on which reposes the great and valuable coal formation," which "extends from the headwaters of the Ohio in Pennsylvania, with some interruption, all the way to the waters of the Tombigbee." He noted that along the southeast boundaries of this formation, as on the fork of the Holston in Virginia and in Greene County and the Pigeon River region of Tennessee, gypsum, salt licks, and salt springs had been discovered. In his first map this is indicated by a line of green extending northeast and southwest entirely across the State. In the second he continues it northeast to New York. The continuation of these as far north as Lake Oneida, in New York State, led him to the conclusion, since abundantly verified, that "we may hope one day to find an abundance of those two most useful substances (salt and gypsum), which are generally found mixed or near each other in all countries that have hitherto been carefully examined." He called attention to the presence of iron pyrites in the coal and limestone, of iron ores consisting principally of brown sparry and clay iron stone, and of galena in the Mississippi valley. On the Great Kanawha, near the mouth of Elk River, he noted the presence of "a large mass of black (I suppose vegetable) earth, so soft as to be penetrated by a pole 10 or 12 feet deep. Out of the hole so made frequently issues a stream of hydrogen gas, which will burn some time;" and he queried "if a careful examination of this place would not throw some light on the formation of coal and other combustible substances found in such abundance in this formation." The occurrence of large detached masses of granite over an area from Harmony, in Indiana, to Erie, New York, and thence to Fort Ann, in some cases at least 200 miles from any known outcrops, was noted, but no suggestion made relative to their probable means of transportation.

In this same year S. Godon published in the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences a paper of twenty-seven pages on Mineralogical Observations made in the environs of Boston in 1807 and 1808.

Godon's Mineralogical Observations, 1809.

As customary at that time, rocks and minerals were bunched together quite indiscriminately. He divided his minerals into two general groups, (1) Simple minerals and (2) Aggregate minerals. The simple minerals were then divided into Acidiferous substances (under which was placed carbonate of lime!), Earthy substances, Combustible substances, and Metallic substances. The aggregate minerals were classed under Primordial soil and Alluvial deposits. Under the first mentioned (Primordial soil) were placed all the primary and consolidated sedimentary rocks of the region. The nomenclature adopted, though somewhat cumbersome and awkward, was not more so than others since devised, the name of any rock being formed by adding the termination *oid* to that of the most characteristic mineral. Thus *amphiboloid*, *feldsparoid*, *argilloid* were the names of rocks in which amphibole, feldspar, or clay formed the chief constituent. The rhyolites (quartz porphyries and felsites) of the region were classed as simple petrosilex and compound petrosilex and the Dorchester conglomerate as wacke.

The paper offers a striking evidence of the lack of knowledge of the composition of rocks and of chemical methods at that date. Thus an attempt was made at analyzing the "argilloid" by reducing 100 parts to a "subtile" powder and mixing it with an equal part of concentrated sulphuric acid. After standing fifteen days the solid portion remaining was removed from the solution (method not stated), washed, and weighed, whereby it was found that 85 per cent remained. The solution was allowed to evaporate to dryness, and from the precipitated sulphate of lime thus obtained it was calculated that 5.5 parts out of the 15 parts soluble were of lime. Alumina and iron were determined by precipitation by ammonia—6.75 parts obtained. The liquid remaining from the alumina-iron filtrate was then dried and heated till the ammonia was driven off, the substance left dissolved in water and allowed to crystallize, producing an admixture of "well characterized sulphate of potash and sulphate of soda." "This analysis," while confessedly not of great accuracy, he wrote, "is sufficient to establish the important fact of the existence of potash and soda as elements in some rocks in this part of the world." Truly an important discovery!

In the same memoirs and this same year Prof. Parker Cleaveland, of Bowdoin College, perhaps all unintentionally, started the controversy relative to Glacial and post-Glacial uplift and depression by announcing the finding of fossil shells belonging to genera still living in deposits of sand and clay well above sea level at Brunswick, Maine.

In January, 1810, there was established by Prof. Archibald Bruce the American Mineralogical Journal, the first American publication designed primarily for geologists and mineralogists. The life of this journal was, however, short, the last issue bearing the date of 1814, and the whole number comprising but 270 pages.

Bruce's American Mineralogical Journal, 1810.

The first paper was by Samuel L. Mitchill, professor of natural history and botany in the University of the State of New York. This consisted of an annotated catalogue accompanying a suite of mineral specimens made during a tour to Niagara in 1809.

Among the other papers which followed mention may be made of one by Colonel Gibbs on the Iron Ores of Franconia, New Hampshire; by Benjamin Silliman on the Lead Mines near Northampton, Massachusetts; by James Catbush on the Blue Earth of New Jersey, and by W. Meade on Elastic Marble, a "fossil of rare occurrence" found near Pittsfield, Massachusetts.

FIG. 1.—Archibald Bruce.

The more important strictly geological papers were by Dr. Samuel Akerly and included a geological account of Dutchess County in New York, one on the improbability of finding coal on Long Island or in the vicinity of New York, and one on the geology and mineralogy of the island of New York. Akerly described the highlands of Dutchess County as consisting of granitic rocks, and the whole country north of the highlands as underlaid with primitive slate, most of the hills being composed of limestone. New York Island was described as underlaid throughout its northern part by primitive rocks, granite, and limestone; the southern part, upon which the then existing city was built, as composed of an alluvion of sand, stone, and rocks. This he regarded as a recent deposit "subsequent to the creation and even the deluge." The manner in which this alluvial material was deposited he described as follows:

> After the waters of the Deluge had retired from this continent, they left a vast chain of lakes, some of which are still confined within their rocky barriers; others have since broken their bounds and united with the ocean. The highlands of New York was the southern boundary of a huge collection of water, which was confined on the west by the Shawangunk and Katts-kill mountains. The hills on the east of the Hudson confined it there. When the hills were cleft and the mountains torn asunder, the water found vent and overflowed the country to the south. It was then that the channel of the Hudson was formed, and its stream has never since ceased to flow. The earth, sand, stones, and rocks brought down by this torrent were deposited in various places, as on this island, Long Island, Staten Island, and the Jerseys. This opinion is mostly hypothetical, because unsupported by a

sufficient number of facts, but that it is probable may be judged by what follows. (See Mitchill's views on p. 231.)

In the same journal Samuel Brown, of Lexington, Kentucky, gave a description of a cave on Crooked Creek, with remarks and observations on niter and gunpowder; Robert Gilmore, a descriptive catalogue of minerals occurring in the vicinity of Baltimore; while S. L. Mitchill proposed an amendment to Maclure's chart of the United States so far as it related to the character of the north side of Long Island, which he showed to be alluvial and not primitive, as stated, and Benjamin Silliman described the plain of New Haven as wholly alluvial and of very recent origin. This paper is evidently a partial reprint of one offered before the Connecticut Academy of Sciences in 1810 and referred to elsewhere (p. 216).

A paper by J. Corre de Serra, the Portuguese minister then residing in Philadelphia, read before the American Philosophical Society in 1815, and published in their Transactions in 1818, is of interest as showing the condition of knowledge relative to so commonplace a phenomenon as that of rock weathering and formation of soils. His paper was entitled Observations and Conjectures on the Formation and Nature of the Soil in Kentucky. He regarded this soil as the product "of the decomposition of an immense deposit of vegetables which the ocean had left uncovered by any other deposition."

It may be remembered that Jefferson, in his notes on the State of Virginia, had described in considerable detail and very eloquently the now well-known Natural Bridge of Rockbridge County, which he regarded as spanning a gigantic fissure, the result of some great convulsion. In the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society for 1816 (1818) Francis William Gilmer had a paper on the same subject, illustrated by a full-page plate. The bridge was described in detail and its formation ascribed, not to a sudden convulsion, as argued by Jefferson, or to any extraordinarily sudden deviation from the ordinary laws of nature, but to the "very slow operation of causes which have always and must ever continue to act in the same manner." This cause he rightly considered to be the solvent action of meteoric waters on limestone. In this respect Gilmer, although scarcely known to geological science, was vastly in advance of the workers of his day.

F. W. Gilmer's ideas on the Natural Bridge.

Three years later the Rev. Elias Cornelius, a man of education and culture, but whose professional training seems to have quite unfitted him for the work of a geologist, also discussed the subject in a paper in the American Journal of Science, giving the results of his observations on the geology of parts of Virginia, Tennessee, and the Alabama and Mississippi territories. He dissented from any of the views thus far expressed, and in the sublimity of his faith could see no good reason, or in his own

Views of the Rev. E. Cornelius, 1819.

words, no "difficulty even in supposing it (i. e., the bridge) to have proceeded from the hand of the Almighty as it is."

Next to Maclure's Observations on the Geology of North America, undoubtedly the most important of the early publications was Parker Cleaveland's Elementary Treatise on Mineralogy and Geology, a work of upward of six hundred pages, with five plates of crystal drawings and a colored geological map.

Cleaveland's Treatise on Mineralogy and Geology, 1816.

For most of the geological observations and for the map Cleaveland was indebted to Maclure and to written communications from H. H. Hayden. The principal variation from Maclure's map lay in the adoption of the suggestion of S. L. Mitchill regarding the extension of the alluvial deposits on Long Island. It further differed from that published by Maclure in 1817 in that a large portion of southern and western Maine was colored as occupied by transition rocks, this area having been left blank by Maclure.

The classification adopted in the work was largely chemical, the minerals being divided into (1) classes, (2) orders, (3) genera, and (4) species, his definition of species being "a collection of materials which are composed of the same ingredients, combined in the same proportions."

In the tabular view given, all known minerals were grouped under four classes, as follows: Class 1, substances not metallic, composed entirely or in part of an acid; class 2, earthy compounds or stones; class 3, combustibles, and class 4, ores. As was the case with all writers of that day, basalt and several other compact rocks of indistinct mineralogical nature were classed as minerals. Thus is found under class 2, species 15, *porcellanite;* species 16, *silicon slate;* species 32, *emerald*, and species 34, *basalt*. This last was described as never crystallized but occurring "in large amorphous masses, but also under a columnar, tabular, or globular form" and passing insensibly into "greenstone, wacke, and perhaps clinkstone."

Not only was the mineralogical nature of basalt little understood, but even its relationship to volcanic rocks as well. It was described as sometimes found in countries decidedly volcanic, but seldom near the craters of still active volcanoes; "on the contrary, it appears at the foot of volcanic mountains and sometimes almost surrounds them." Some of the most noted localities mentioned are the Giant's Causeway, island of Staffa, the Erzgebirge, Auvergne, etc. Its occurrence in the United States was regarded as doubtful, though he noted its reported occurrence on the Stony (Rocky) Mountains. It was regarded as of both igneous and aqueous origin.

Anthracite, which forms species 6 under class 3, combustibles, was described as "strongly resembling *coal*, from which, however, it materially differs." It was said to occur in primitive or transitional rocks, though sometimes connected with secondary rocks. Obviously,

therefore, it is stated, it has not, at least in many cases, resulted from the decomposition of vegetable matter.

Pages 586 to 636 of Cleaveland's first edition included an introduction to the study of geology. Some of the statements here made are of interest: "Most of those extensive masses of strata," he wrote, "with which geology is concerned are compound minerals, or aggregates, composed of two or more simple minerals mingled in various proportions and denominated rocks." While thus a division into species and genera may be possible with minerals, with rocks the case is quite different. "It is obvious that they can not admit of distinctions which are strictly specific." This observation holds good to the present day. His remarks on the position of the beds of rocks were no less interesting:

> When primitive rocks are stratified the strata are seldom horizontal. On the contrary, they are often highly inclined and sometimes nearly or quite vertical. But whether these strata were originally inclined or whether, subsequent to their formation, they have been changed from a horizontal to an inclined position by the action of some powerful cause, is a question on which the most distinguished geologists are divided in opinion.

Again:

> It is further evident that the higher the level at which any rock appears at the surface of the earth, the older is the rock; for it so declines as to pass under those rocks which appear at a lower level. The only exception to this general fact appears in those horizontal strata of secondary rocks which sometimes rest on the summits of high mountains.

The theory of the earth adopted by Cleaveland is apparently that of Cuvier. In his discussion of the origin of rocks and geological systems he was for the most part a follower of Werner, though he recognized some of the difficulties attendant upon the complete adoption of the Neptunian theory. "Though its general outlines may be correct, we are yet unable to give its details. It seems, however, to be rather encumbered with difficulties than absolutely confronted by existing facts." His views regarding volcanoes were largely a reflection of those advocated by his European contemporaries, and need but brief allusion.

> Many parts of the external crust of the earth are subject to the action of subterraneous fire. In some cases these fires are comparatively mild and produce no important effects, excepting the destruction of the combustibles which feed them, and are nothing more than coal mines in a state of combustion. But in other cases these subterraneous fires rage with resistless impetuosity.

Cleaveland was a graduate of Harvard in the class of 1799, and was in 1805 appointed to the professorship of mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, and mineralogy in Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine. He is described by his biographer (the elder Silliman) as a man of great natural ardor and activity, with a reputation for zeal, industry, and learning. To these statements certainly no one will take exception, when the period and magnitude of his work and manifold character of his professional

Sketch of Cleaveland.

PARKER CLEAVELAND.

Professor of Chemistry and Mineralogy, Bowdoin College.

duties are taken into consideration. It must be remembered that his was the first attempt made in America at a systematic treatise on mineralogy. (Shepard's came sixteen and Dana's twenty-one years later.) The only available foreign works were those of Jameson, Kirwan, Werner, and Brongniart; moreover, there were in America few, if any, important mineral cabinets, those of B. D. Perkins, Archibald Bruce, and Col. George Gibbs alone being worthy of mention. The work, we are told, was received with great favor, two editions being issued, the second in two volumes bearing date of 1822. A third was called for but never prepared, owing to the failing health of the author.[a]

An interesting side light is thrown by one of the reviewers of the first edition upon the condition of the science at that time. Thus he wrote of Hauy's "curious discoveries regarding the six primitive figures or solids which form the base of all crystals," and called it "the most singular and acute discovery of our age," though "there is a difference of opinion among mineralogists as to the practical use of crystallography in the discrimination of minerals." The same reviewer naively remarked: "In this age of bookmaking it is no small negative praise if an author be acquitted of unnecessarily adding to the onerous mass of books."[b]

Not satisfied with his first edition, which, according to Marcou, was published during the author's absence in Europe, Maclure immediately set about obtaining the necessary information for a revision, and in 1817, after eight years of hard work, presented the amended memoir, which was republished in the transactions of the Philosophical Society and also in the form of a separate volume of 127 pages, bearing the same date. The second issue differed considerably from the first, the most conspicuous features being the delineation of the mountain ranges and the correction of many minor details regarding the distribution of various geological formations.

Second Edition of Maclure's Observations, 1817.

On Plate 2 of this issue he gave five sections across the United States from the Atlantic, through the Appalachian regions and the secondary rocks of the Mississippi, which were colored to correspond with the

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[a] In a letter dated Madrid, August 20, 1822, Maclure writes to Cleaveland as follows: "I felicitate you on a second edition of your mineralogy being so soon necessary. The mineralogical professor here, Dn. Donato Garcia, has the intention of translating your work into Spanish as the best elementary book yet known." As to whether or not this intention was carried out, the present writer has no information.

[b] The second American work on mineralogy by one who could with propriety be called a mineralogist and original worker was Prof. C. U. Shepard's Treatise on Mineralogy, Shepard being at that time twenty-eight years of age and an assistant to Professor Silliman at New Haven. The work, which was founded on that of the well-known Austrian mineralogist, Mohs, appeared in the form of a small octavo volume of 256 pages. In 1835 a second part in two volumes of 630 pages appeared. Being purely mineralogical in its nature, but passing note can be made of it here. A second edition was issued in 1844.

scheme in the map. (See Plate 5.) The first section extended from Camden in Penobscot Bay, Maine, to Oxboro, near Kingston, on Lake Ontario; the second from Plymouth, Massachusetts, to Cayuga Lake, New York; the third from Egg Harbor, New Jersey, to Pittsburg, Pennsylvania; the fourth from Cape Henry, Virginia, to Arlington, in the same State, and the fifth from Cape Fear, North Carolina, to Warm Springs, in the same State. The poverty of information at that time relative to the Rocky Mountain region is shown in the statement that "the tops of the Stony Mountains are covered to a considerable extent with perpetual snows and pendent glaciers."

As was the case with a majority of the earlier surveys and geological text-books, considerable attention was given to the relation of the science to agriculture, and the two closing chapters of the second issue were given up to Hints on the Decomposition of Rock, with an Inquiry into the Probable Effects they may Produce on the Nature and Fertility of Soils. The kinds of soils resulting from the decomposition of various rocks were discussed with particular attention to their physical nature, but while occasional references were made to their content of lime, the alkalies, and other constituents, no chemical analyses were given, nor was their desirability apparently appreciated.

It does not seem to have been realized, however, that throughout the entire glaciated area as now known there may be little connection between the soils and the rocks immediately underlying them.

During 1818, as already noted, there was founded the American Journal of Science, or, as it was familiarly called, Silliman's Journal, the first volume bearing on the title-page the date 1819. It is notable as being the first American journal to be given up largely to geological subjects, although other sciences were by no means debarred. In fact, as noted in his plan of the work, the Journal was intended to embrace the circle of the physical sciences and their application to the arts and to every useful purpose.

The American Journal of Science, 1818.

From its earliest inception geological notes and papers occupied a prominent place in its pages, and a perusal of the numbers from the date of issue down to the present time will, alone, afford a fair idea of the gradual progress of American geology. I shall note in the following pages many articles taken from the Journal, particularly the earlier numbers, as serving best to illustrate the condition of the science at the time of their issue.

Among the earliest publications on the geology and mineralogy of New England mention must be made of J. F. and S. L. Dana's Outlines of the Mineralogy and Geology of Boston and Vicinity, which bears the date of 1818, and which is further noteworthy for containing a geological map of the area indicated, being antedated only a year by Edward Hitchcock's geological map of a part of Massachusetts on the Connecticut River

Dana's Geology and Mineralogy of Boston, 1818.

and the various reprints of Maclure's. The classification adopted was that of Werner, and hence, of course, purely lithological. The various rocks enumerated and colored on the map were: I. The Primitive, including granite, argillite, primitive trap, porphyry, and syenite; II. Transition, including amygdaloid and graywacke; and III. Alluvial, including sand, pebbles, clay, and peat. No granite was, however, recorded as in place, the granite of Quincy and the areas west of north of Marblehead being colored as syenite. The argillite was regarded as the oldest rock occurring in the vicinity, and was represented as forming gently undulating eminences in Charlestown, Watertown, Chelsea, and Quincy. Greenstone, or primitive trap, was represented as occupying all of the Marblehead-Salem areas and large areas to the west, including Stoneham and Lexington. Porphyry, "a compound rock having a compact basis, in which are embedded crystals or grains of other minerals of contemporaneous formation," and which passes into both syenite and petrosilex, they found in Malden, Lynn, and Chelsea, while the large area beginning at the shore east and north of Lynn and extending southwestward as far as Malden, was colored as *petrosilex*. A wide strip, extending from just west of the Charles River to the coast, including Brookline, Roxbury, and Dorchester, was colored as *graywacke*, this being, of course, the conglomerate of later writers. On the northern and western edges of this are narrow belts colored as *amygdaloid*, the same being the rock later shown by Benton to be melaphyr, or ancient basaltic lava flow.

FIG. 2.—Samuel Luther Dana.

The minerals as described were divided into Class I. Earthy fossils; Class II. Saline fossils; Class III. Inflammable substances; and Class IV. Metallick fossils. Under Class I were included the phosphates and carbonates of lime, quartz, such silicates as mica, shorl, feldspar, garnet, epidote, the amphiboles, etc., and such compound substances as petrosilex, basalt, wacke, schaalstone, argillaceous slate, and clay. The second class, Saline Fossils, included but a single species, sulphate of iron. Class III included hydrogen gas and peat, and Class IV sulphides and chlorides of copper, sulphide, oxide, and carbonate of iron, sulphide of lead, and oxide of manganese. The classes were subdivided into orders and the orders into genera, species, subspecies, and varieties. Thus novaculite was considered a subspecies of argillaceous slate, a species under Order II, Nonacidiferous substances of Class I, Earthy fossils. Altogether some 21 species of Earthy fossils were recognized, 1 of Saline fossils, 2 of Inflammable substances, and 8 of Metallick fossils. These were all described in detail, their physical

characters and conduct before the blowpipe, and their place of occurrence. Perhaps no better means of showing the condition of the science at that time can be found than by reproducing here a page of the original descriptive matter under Class I, Order II.

SPECIES VII—WACKE.

Wacke, *Cleaveland*, p. 287. Wacce, *Jameson*, vol. 1, p. 376. Wacken, *Kirwan*, vol. 1, p. 223. Wakke, *Aikin*, p. 254.

External characters.

Its colours are grey and purple. Of grey, it occurs blackish grey and greenish grey; of purple, lavender purple. The colours vary much in their intensity.

It is dull.

It is amorphous and cellular.

It exhales a strong argillaceous odour when breathed upon.

It adheres to the tongue.

Its streak is greyish white, with a reddish purple tinge in some parts, and is dull.

It is moderately hard, passing to soft.

The fracture is from fine grained uneven to earthy; some specimens show a slightly slaty structure.

It is brittle.

It is easily frangible.

The fragments are indeterminately angular and not particularly sharp edged.

Its specifick gravity is about 2.88.

Chymical characters.

Before the blowpipe it melts into an opaque, semi-vitreous mass which appears porous when broken.

Geological situation and localities.

It occurs in beds in Petrosilex at Milton, and forms the basis of Amygdaloid at Brighton, Hingham, Newton, &c., and it is found also in rounded fragments at Needham, Newton, Brighton, &c.

Remarks.

This mineral sometimes much resembles ferruginous clay, and is intermediate between Clay and Basalt. It is very liable to decomposition, and when it forms the basis of Amygdaloid, by undergoing this change, it leaves the imbedded minerals projecting, or they fall out and leave the Wacke cellular.[a]

Mitchill on the Geology of North America, 1818.

In 1818 there was published by Kirk and Mercein in New York Robert Jameson's translation of Cuvier's celebrated essay on the Theory of the Earth, and with it S. L. Mitchill's Observations on the Geology of North America.[b] It is the Observations alone that need now receive our attention, and this with particular reference only to what is said regarding the origin of the drift. Mitchill was one of the most prominent

[a] This work was the subject of a scathing review in the Analectic Magazine, XIII, 1819, where the writers were accused of having borrowed at least three-fourths of their material "for the mere purpose of eking out the matter to the proper size of a *justum volumen*—of borrowing the most elementary ideas of the most common authors." * * * "A student who has read either Cleaveland, Jameson, or Aikin, will find not a sentence that is new in at least nine-tenths of the book; which is in fact a disgraceful example of literary book-making, as it respects both the matter and the manner."

[b] There was manifested, particularly by the publishing houses of Philadelphia, an

scientific men of his day, had read and traveled extensively, and it may be safe to assume that the views held by him were supposed to rest upon a good foundation, though they were not wholly accepted, as is mentioned later.

It was Mitchill's idea that the Great Lakes were the shrunken representatives of great internal seas of salt water, which ultimately broke through their barriers, the saline lakes becoming gradually freshened by a constant influx of fresh water. The remains of the barriers which held back for a time this inland sea he thought to be still evident. One of them, he wrote, seemed to have circumscribed to a certain degree the waters of the original Lake Ontario and to be still traceable as a mountainous ridge beyond the St. Lawrence in upper Canada, northeast of Kingston, passing thence into New York, where it formed the divide between the present lake and the St. Lawrence, and, continuing to the north end of Lake George, apparently crossed the Hudson above Hadley Falls. Thence he believed it to run toward the eastern sources of the Susquehanna, along the Cookwago and Papachton branches of the Delaware, crossing the last named a little north of Easton (Delaware Watergap), the Lehigh north of Heidelburg (Lehigh Gap), and the Schuylkill northwest of Hamburg in Pennsylvania. Continuing thence along to the north of Harrisburg, across the Susquehanna, in a southwesterly direction until it entered Maryland, and passed the Potomac at Harpers Ferry into Virginia, where it became confounded with the Allegheny Mountains. Thence gradually disappearing, traces of it appeared to the westward, as at Cumberland Gap in Tennessee and the mountains west of Cape Girardeau beyond the Mississippi.

FIG. 3.—Samuel Latham Mitchill.

It is evident that for a good part of its course, as traced, this barrier was but the Blue Ridge, while in eastern New York it was comprised mainly of the Catskills and Adirondacks.

To appreciate Mitchill's view, then, we have to imagine this now broken and gapped ridge as continuous throughout its whole extent, forming a vast dam holding back the waters of several salt inland seas

early tendency to reprint many of the English works on geology and mineralogy. This finds its most important illustration, from the present standpoint, in the reprinting of Frederick Accums's A Practical Essay on the Analysis of Minerals (Philadelphia, 1809); Cuvier's Essay, as noted above; Bakewell's An Introduction to Geology (New Haven, 1829); Cuvier's A Discourse on the Evolution of the Surface of the Globe (Philadelphia, 1831); and De la Beche's A Geological Manual (Philadelphia, 1832), etc.

to the northward, while the region to the southward was dry land. A time came, however, when the dams at various points proved too frail and gave way, the pent-up waters rushing through and carrying devastation with them like the waters from cloud-bursts or bursting reservoirs of to-day, but on a thousandfold larger scale.

One breach was conceived to have been at the northeastern extremity of Lake Ontario. The Thousand Isles, to Mitchill's mind, "bear witness to the mighty rush of waters which thus prostrated the opposing

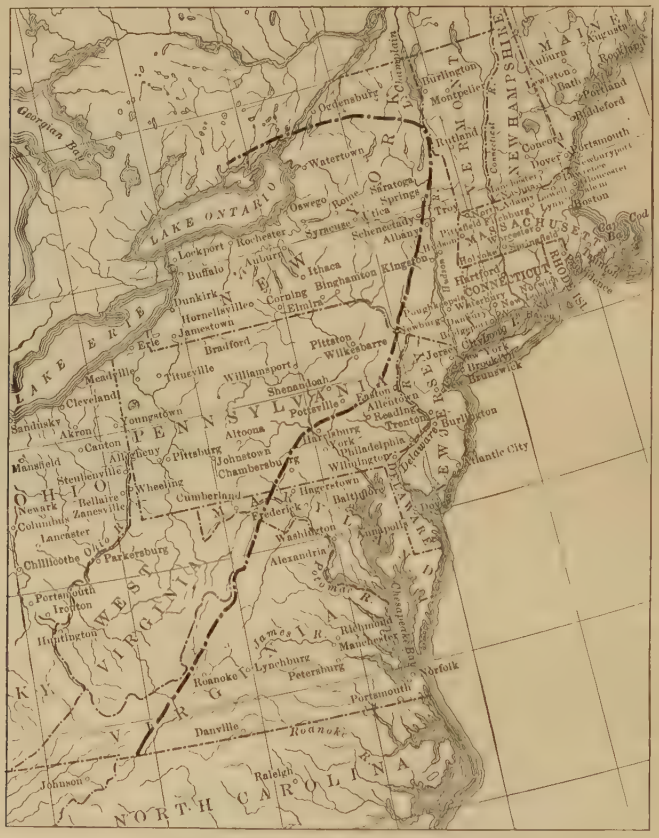


FIG. 4.—Map to illustrate Mitchill's theory of barriers.

mound and left them as scattered monuments of the ruin." "By this operation the water must have subsided about 160 feet," or to its present level.

All the country on both the Canadian and Fredonian sides must have been drained and left bare * * * exposing to view the waterworn pebbles, the works of marine animals, their solid parts buried in the soil, their relicks bedded in the rocks, and the whole exhibition of organic remains formed in the bottom of such a sea as that was.

Great masses of primitive rocks from the demolished mound or dam and vast quantities of sand, mud, and gravel were carried down the stream to form the curious mixture of primitive with alluvial materials in regions below.

A second breach was conceived to have been at the northern extremity of Lake George, whereby the lake was diminished to about its present size. A third was at Hadley Falls; a fourth at the upper falls of the Mohawk; a fifth was made by the pent-up waters of the Delaware above Easton, Pennsylvania; a sixth by the Lehigh to the northwest of Bethlehem; a seventh by the Schuylkill; an eighth by the Susquehanna, and a ninth by the Potomac cutting its way through the Blue Ridge at Harpers Ferry. A second series of lakes and dams he conceived as having existed outside, i. e., to the southward of those above mentioned. To the bursting of these he attributed many of the minor features of the present landscape.

The work contains little in the way of systematic geology aside from the speculations above mentioned, though there are disconnected references to and descriptions of fossil remains and rocks found in various parts of the country. He, however, called attention to the possibility of the Great Lakes having formerly drained into the Mississippi, the gradual retreat of the falls of Niagara, and the formation of the gorge through the undermining of the harder surface limestone, facts which seem to have been very early recognized.

This same year witnessed the first appearance in geological science of Edward Hitchcock, then a young theological student of twenty-five, but who was destined to be one of the most prominent figures of his time. Hitchcock came first into notice in 1815 through some astronomical observations and corrections furnished Blunt's Nautical Almanac. His inclination, however, early took a geological turn, and throughout a prolonged period of activity, first as a clergyman and later as professor, president, and again professor in Amherst College, he kept himself ever prominently to the front.

Edward Hitchcock's First Geological Paper, 1818.

The first State geological survey carried to completion, that of Massachusetts, 1830–1833, was primarily his conception and executed almost wholly through his efforts. He became, however, most widely known and is best remembered through his work on the footprints found in the Triassic sandstones of the Connecticut Valley and his studies of the drift phenomena, in both of which he was a pioneer. Indeed, if one may be allowed to speak facetiously of so cultured and dignified a gentleman, he was America's first "superficial geologist," and a perusal of his papers alone will give a very fair idea of the development of the glacial hypothesis in America.

The paper to which allusion is made above, Some Remarks on the Geology and Mineralogy of a Section of Massachusetts on the Connecticut River, with a Part of New Hampshire and Vermont, was published in the first volume, 1818, of the American Journal of Science. It is noteworthy on account of a geological map of the region, colored by hand, and a transverse section of the rock strata

from Hoosac Mountain to 11 miles east of the Connecticut River. The rocks were classed as primitive, secondary, and alluvial, the older crystallines and the argillites being considered as primitive, while the traps and sandstones were put down as secondary.

The year 1818 was rendered notable also by the appearance in the geological arena of Amos Eaton, a man who, like Hitchcock, was destined to achieve a national reputation, but whose mental characteristics were as unlike Hitchcock's as was possible among men in the same calling. His first geological paper occupied three pages of the American Journal of Science for the year under discussion. His first noteworthy publication was the Index to the Geology of the Northern States, which appeared in the form of a text-book for the geological classes at Williams College that same year. Eaton is described as a man of great force, untiring energy, and was one of the most interesting men of his day. In 1816, at the age of forty, he abandoned the practice of law and went to New Haven to attend Silliman's lectures on mineralogy and geology. Subsequently he traveled many thousand miles on foot, throughout New England and New York, delivering in the principal towns short courses of lectures on natural history. In March, 1817, having received an invitation to aid in the introduction of the natural sciences in Williams College, his alma mater, he delivered a course of lectures in Williamstown. Such was the zeal at this institution, he wrote, that "an uncontrollable enthusiasm for natural history took possession of every mind, and other departments of learning were for a time crowded out of the college." In April, 1818, on invitation of Governor De Witt Clinton, he delivered in Albany, before the members of the State legislature, a course of lectures on natural history. Here was undoubtedly the beginning of the work which resulted in the establishment of the State survey.

Eaton's Index, 1818.

In the "Index" mentioned above (which has been pronounced "the first attempt at an arrangement of the geological strata of North America") the views expressed were naturally largely tinged with Wernerism. They are reviewed in detail here, even when almost exact equivalents, on account of their local application.

Eaton divided the rocks of the earth's crust into five classes: First, Primitive; second, Transition; third, Secondary; fourth, Superincumbent; and, fifth, Alluvial; the body of the work, occupying pages 15 to 41, inclusive, being given up to their description and geographical distribution.

Under the head of Primitive rocks he included granite, granular limestone and quartz, gneiss, mica-slate, soapstone rocks, calcareous and granular quartz, and syenite. These were regarded as barren of fossil remains and the oldest rocks to which human research had extended.

AMOS EATON.

Professor of Natural Science, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute.

The Transition class included metalliferous limestone, argillaceous and siliceous slate, graywacke slate, and rubblestone.

The Secondary class included red sandstone, breccia, compact limestone, gypsum, and rocksalt; the Superincumbent class, basalt, greenstone, trap, and amygdaloid, and the Alluvial class, gravel, sand, clay, and loam.

Illustrative of his ideas concerning the position of these rocks, a geological transverse section was given, extending from Boston on the east to the Catskill Mountains on the west. From a perusal of this section and the accompanying text many interesting and, to us, striking conclusions are drawn. For instance, in discussing the position of the gneiss of the Primitive series as it occurs between Dalton and Pittsfield, Vermont, he wrote: "It sinks laterally under the mica-slate to the west, and probably does not rise again until it reaches the continent of Asia." The soapstones and serpentines, now known to be altered eruptive rock, were regarded by him as forming one of the concentric coats of mechanically deposited materials, and, as with syenite and granite, their possible eruptive origin not dreamed of.

In his Transition class he would include the marbles of western Vermont, now considered to be of Lower Silurian and Cambrian age, and the roofing slates.

In the Secondary class he included the red sandstones of the Catskills (Devonian), as well as those of the Connecticut River (Triassic). Discussing the position of the Catskill stone, he wrote: "Bakewell removed this stratum

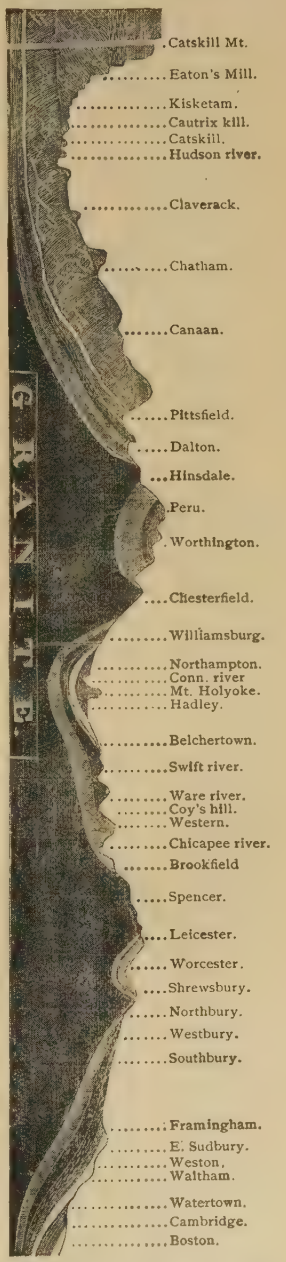


FIG. 5.—A GEOLOGICAL TRANSVERSE SECTION, EXTENDING FROM CATSKILL MOUNTAIN TO THE ATLANTIC. (By Amos Eaton.)

Successive arrangement of the strata:

1. Granite.
2. Granular limestone and quartz.
3. Gneiss.
4. Mica slate.
5. Soapstone rocks.
6. Calcareous and granular quartz.
7. Sienite.
8. Metalliferous limestone.
9. Argillaceous and siliceous slate.
10. Graywacke slate.
11. Rubblestone.
12. Red sandstone.
13. Breccia.
14. Compact limestone.
15. Gypsum.
16. Rock salt.
17. Superincumbent rocks.
18. Alluvial deposits.

from the Secondary class (where Werner placed it) to the Transition. He says this stratum terminates the series of transition rocks containing metallic veins and the more ancient organic relics. Had Bakewell ever visited Catskill Mountain he would undoubtedly have left the red sandstone where Werner placed it; for here the true old red sandstone of Werner contains the organized remains of at least one well-known phenogamous woody plant."[a] He also stated that this sandstone contained the petrified remains of the roots of the *Kalmia latifolia*, or common laurel! The gypsum and rocksalt beds of New York and Pennsylvania, now regarded as of Salina age, he included in this Secondary class, and also the common compact limestone occurring in the western part of New York State, but not found east of the Hudson River.

In the Superincumbent class were included, as already stated, greenstone trap, amygdaloid, and basalt, which he regarded as varieties of one and the same rock. This assumption on his part is interesting in connection with the discussion of the last twenty years (since the introduction of the microscope into geology) regarding the now well-established relationship existing between basalt, melaphyr, and diabase. While these rocks were considered by him as volcanic, their exact source seemed problematic. "On the Deerfield River the greenstone sinks down in a fissure in the red sandstone. * * * Bakewell would say here were volcanoes and here the melted greenstone was thrown up through the sandstone."

In discussing his Alluvial class, he wrote:

> It is agreed by all geologists that all soils, excepting what proceeds from decomposed animal and vegetable matter, are composed of the broken fragments of disintegrated rocks. From this fact it is natural to infer that the soil of any district might be known by the rocks out of which it is formed; consequently, that rocks abounding in quartz would produce a sandy soil and those abounding in argillaceous slate a clay soil, etc. * * * This inference is certainly correct, but there is great difficulty in determining what rocks may have extended over any particular district and been entirely dissolved in former ages. Is there not good reason to believe that most of the strata now constituting Catskill Mountain * * * once extended over Massachusetts to the Atlantic Ocean?

That these strata once extended as far as Massachusetts and united to the same strata at Pittsfield and Stockbridge he regarded as beyond question, and he concluded that a mass of rock from 1,000 to 3,000 feet in thickness, from 20 to 30 miles in breadth, and perhaps 80 miles in length, had been dissolved and mostly washed down the Hudson River. Fragments of every stratum he thought were still to be found in small masses throughout the towns in the vicinity. The possibility

[a] Concerning this Hall remarks (Geology of Fourth District, p. 6): "It is a remarkable fact that at this early period Mr. Eaton should have recognized the sandstone of the Catskill Mountains as the Old Red of Europe, which, now that we have identified its characteristic fossils, is proved to be true."

of glacial drift was of course at that time wholly unrealized, and he accounted for the masses of granite and syenite, weighing from 1 to 50 tons, which are scattered throughout the Connecticut River region, as residuary fragments from atmospheric decomposition.

What force can have brought these masses from the western hills across a deep valley 700 feet lower than their present situation? Are we not compelled to say that this valley was once filled up so as to make a gradual descent from the Chesterfield range of granite, sienite, etc., to the top of Mount Tom? Then it would be easy to conceive of their being rolled down to the top of the greenstone, where we now find them.

In this year Eaton published also his Conjectures Respecting the Formation of the Earth. In this, largely following Werner, he taught that the water now covering three-fourths of the earth's exterior was at one time thoroughly commingled with the solid materials constituting the globe in such a manner as to form a very thick paste. Such being the primary condition, the heaviest materials contained in this globular mass of mortar would soon begin slowly to settle together, the heaviest naturally at the center. Further, that such settling took place in inverse order of the specific gravities of particles, forming thus several concentric layers of metals, arranged like the coats of an onion. This settling went on until finally granite was deposited, several thousand years being regarded as necessary for the completion of all the strata. Previous to the deposition of granite, gneiss, mica-slate, and other primitive rocks, neither animals nor vegetables were conceived to exist, for no traces of them have been discovered in the rocks of these types.

As condensation went on, the water being disengaged from the inner deposits and forced gradually toward the exterior of the mass, the earth paste became more diluted, and a few zoophytes, shell animals, and cryptogamous plants were created, as was shown by the finding of their remains in the transition rocks overlying the primitive.

The continued dilution of the water by the deposition of the materials of the transition series was followed by the creation of several species of fish, and as the solution was thinner the deposits of the secondary rocks went on with considerable rapidity. During this time the red sandstone, compact limestone, and indurated marl were deposited, entombing incidentally individuals of the various plants and animals enumerated.

While this secondary formation was going on the internal heat of the earth immediately beneath the granite, by converting the water which remained in the subterranean interstices into steam, began to raise up the rocks of granite. The expansion of this steam found relief by forcing its way wherever the least resistance was presented, and as strata can be separated from each other easier than they can be broken through, the steam probably traveled laterally round the earth, separating the granite from the next stratum below. At length the force of the more highly rarefied steam became too great to be any longer confined within the coat of granite. It burst through at the weakest part and shot forth its craggy broken edges above the muddy waters which surrounded it.

Concerning the source of this heat, "whether it arose from the admixture and combustion of substances then abounding beneath the granite," or whether "it was excited by the concentric layers of metallic plates serving as a vast galvanic battery," Eaton was noncommittal.

The projecting edges of granite, together with the uplifted strata of transition and secondary rocks, formed the first islands and continents of dry land. Alluvial deposits had already commenced under water, and therefore parts of the raised islands and continents were prepared for the reception and support of plants and animals of the more perfectly organized structure.

These, however, were not the continents of the present day, which were conceived then to be at the bottom of the primeval ocean, but were rather the continents occupied by antediluvians, and which are now in their turn probably at the bottom of the Indian Ocean. This land, he argued—

may have been supported by the meeting place of two vast segments of uplifted granite which contained beneath them an immense subterranean sea. Our present continent may now be supported in the same way and the meeting of the edges of segments form the granitic ridge which extends from Georgia to the Frigid Zone—that is to say, that which forms the Appalachian Mountain system.

In whatever manner the ancient world was supported, it is evident that when the wickedness of man drew down the vengeance of the Almighty, its foundations gave way and it sank to the bottom of the ocean never to be again uplifted.

Incidental to this catastrophe, he conceived there may have been formed a "vacuum wherein much water might subside;" or possibly several continents falling in contemporaneously, basins were formed—

sufficient to hold all the waters which had hitherto covered the continents of our day; or, perhaps, the pressure at the outer margins of the falling continents might force up the granite, which raised our continents out of the ocean. * * * At any rate, the fountains of the great deep were broken up, and our continents, then at the bottom of the great deep, emerged into open day. While this tremendous crash of nature was going on, scales of various thicknesses from the various strata were shot up, detached and broken, which gave formation to our surrounding hills, the ragged cliffs of the Catskill and the bleak brow of the Andes. Some were formed at the bottom of the sea by volcanic fires; others have arisen from various causes since the great deep retired.

This order of creation he conceived to be directly in accord with the account of Moses and the sinking of the ancient continent contemporaneous with the Noachian deluge.

When the fountains of the great deep were broken up and the bottoms of those fountains became dry land, the ancient world became itself the bottom of the great deep in its turn.

During this period all surviving animal life, both human and otherwise, was conceived as confined within the limits of Noah's ark, about one year elapsing from the time the sinking took place and the ark was floated before the new earth was sufficiently dry for the occupants to disembark.

These conjectures, it will be observed, are not quite those of Werner, since the original paste constituting the globe must, according to Eaton, have been rather a mechanical admixture than a chemical solution. While the early stages of precipitation, whereby the heaviest materials were deposited in the form of concentric layers of metals, might be suggestive of a condition of solution or aqueo-igneous fusion, the subsequent deposition of the secondary rocks, which are so plainly fragmental, leaves us to conclude that he regarded the primary condition as that of a mechanical mixture or emulsion.

Eaton in his index deviated somewhat from Werner's classification also in that he placed the argillaceous slates in the transition rather than in the primitive class.[a]

American Geological Society, 1819.

The year 1819 was signalized by the organization, in the philosophical room of Yale College, of the American Geological Society, the first American society devoted mainly to geological and allied subjects. Though this continued in existence only until the end of 1828, it was productive of much good in stimulating workers throughout the country. Maclure was elected president, with Colonel Gibbs, Professor Silliman, Professor Cleaveland, Stephen Elliott, R. Gilmor, S. Brown, and Robert Hare, vice-presidents. Among the more prominent members were Akerly, Bruce, Cornelius, S. L. and J. F. Dana, Dewey, Eaton, Godon, Hitchcock, Mitchill, Rafinesque, Schoolcraft, and Steinhauer, while the names of Emmons, Harlan, Lea, Morton, Troost, and Vanuxem appear among the younger and then less prominent workers.

The society published nothing and has left little that is tangible to tell of its existence, though Eaton, in the second edition of his Index to the Geology of the Northern States, makes the following interesting comment concerning its personnel:

> The president of the American Geological Society, William M'Clure, esq., has already struck out the grand outline of North American geographical geology. The first vice-president, Col. G. Gibbs, has collected more facts and amassed more geological and mineralogical specimens than any other individual of the age. The second vice-president, Professor Silliman, his learned and indefatigable colleague in these labors, gives the true scientific dress to all the naked mineralogical subjects, which are furnished to his hand. The third vice-president, Professor Cleaveland, is successfully employed in elucidating and familiarizing those interesting sciences; and thus smoothing the rugged paths of the student Professor Mitchill has amassed a large store of materials, and annexed them to the labors of Cuvier and Jameson. But the drudgery of climbing cliffs and descending into fissures and caverns and of traversing in all directions our most rugged mountainous districts to ascertain the distinctive characters, number, and order of our strata has devolved on me. I make no pretensions to any peculiar qualifications other than that bodily health and constitutional fitness for labor and fatigue which such an employment requires.

[a] Silliman in his review of the work (American Journal of Science, I, 1819, p. 70) called attention to the fact that the clay slate may belong either to primitive, transition, or secondary formations. He also questioned if the West Stockbridge marble should not be regarded as primitive rather than metalliferous.

During the years 1818 and 1819 Henry R. Schoolcraft made a trip throughout what is now known as the lead region of the Mississippi Valley, and in November of the last-named year published, in the form of an octavo volume of some 300 pages, a book entitled A View of the Lead Mines of Missouri; Including Some Observations on the Mineralogy, Geology, Geography, Antiquities, Soil, Climate, Population, and Productions of Missouri and Arkansas and Other Sections of the Western Country. The work contained little of geological importance, the purport of the trip being mainly to study the lead deposits of the region. He described the whole mineral country as "bottomed" on primitive limestone, though he found quartz rock and later sand rock very common in the southern section of the Arkansas country. Secondary limestone was also met with, but was far less common than in Ohio, Indiana, Connecticut, and Illinois, the ore itself being found in the decomposition products from the primitive limestone. He mentioned the occurrence of granite in Washington and Madison counties, also greenstone porphyry and iron ore, and correctly described the granite as being the only mass of its kind known to exist between the primitive ranges of the Allegheny and Rocky mountains, being surrounded on all sides and to an almost immeasurable extent with secondary limestone. He gave also a descriptive catalogue of the minerals found in the State. Among them mention was made of the flint from Girardeau County; several varieties of quartz, including the Arkansas novaculite; a red pipestone from the Falls of St. Anthony, which is evidently the catlinite of more recent writers, but which he called steatite; and other minerals, including baryte, fluorite, blende, antimony, native copper, etc. He described briefly the micaceous iron ore of Iron Mountain, the coal found near Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, and other minerals which need not be mentioned in detail.

Schoolcraft's Explorations, 1818-19.

FIG. 6.—Henry Rowe Schoolcraft.

Schoolcraft was one of those all-round naturalists and investigators such as could exist only in the early days of science, when it was possible for one mind to embrace or include all knowledge, keep track of its development, and at the same time aid in its advancement. A man apparently of more than ordinary vigor, daring, and perseverence, he early became interested in the work of exploration, his field being, however, limited mainly to the Mississippi Valley and the region of the Great Lakes. His geological work was purely of the reconnaissance type, but was of the greatest value in the then existing condition of knowledge regarding the regions visited, the lead regions of the

Mississippi Valley and the copper regions of Lake Superior both profiting by his labors.

Being brought in contact with the aborigines and realizing the rapidity with which they were becoming contaminated through con-

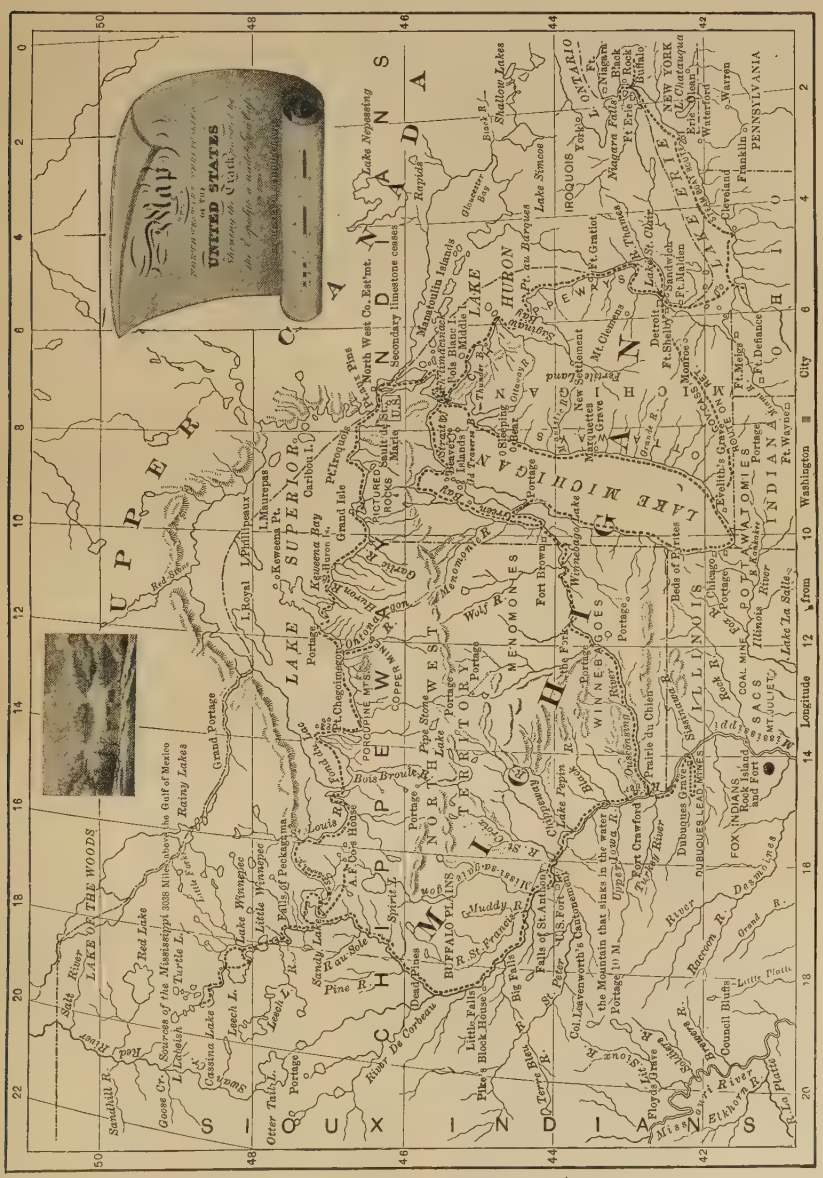
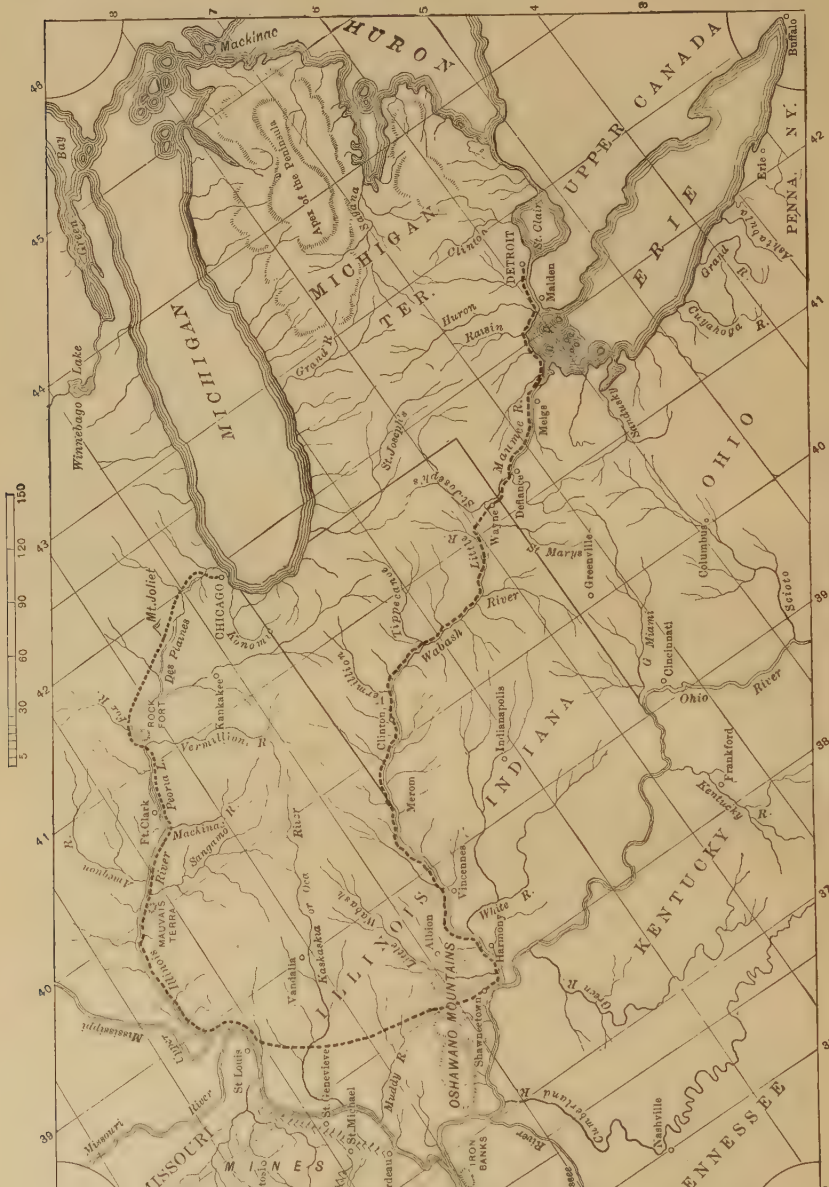


FIG. 7.—Map showing Schoolcraft's route in 1820.

tact with the whites, he was drawn into a study of the Indian tribes of North America, to which work, after 1822, he gave up a large portion of his time. The main work of his life lies, therefore, quite outside the limits of the present paper.

In 1820 Schoolcraft, acting under direction of Governor Lewis Cass, of Michigan, who was himself acting under authority of the then Secretary of War, made a trip along the Great Lakes and to the sources



A SKETCH OF THE WESTERN COUNTRY.

FIG. 8.—Map of Schoolcraft's travels in 1821 (1825).

of the Mississipppi, the results of which, with general notes on the natural history of the region, were published the year following.

In 1821 he was a member of a second expedition authorized by the General Government to explore the central portions of the Mississippi Valley, the results of which were published in 1825. In 1822 he also reported to the General Government on the extent and value of the mineral lands on Lake Superior, and again in 1832 "resumed and completed" his explorations of the sources of the Mississippi, his results appearing in book form in 1855.

The expedition of 1820 (See map, fig. 7) started at Detroit and made its way northward along the western shores of lakes St. Clair and Huron to the Straits of Michilimackinac, thence northward through St. Marys River and along the south shore of Lake Superior to Fond du Lac, up the St. Louis River, and down the Savannah to Sandy Lake and lakes Winnipeg and Cassina farther north. The return trip was made down the Mississippi to the lead region near Dubuque, Iowa, and thence northeasterly up the Wisconsin River to Green Bay, where

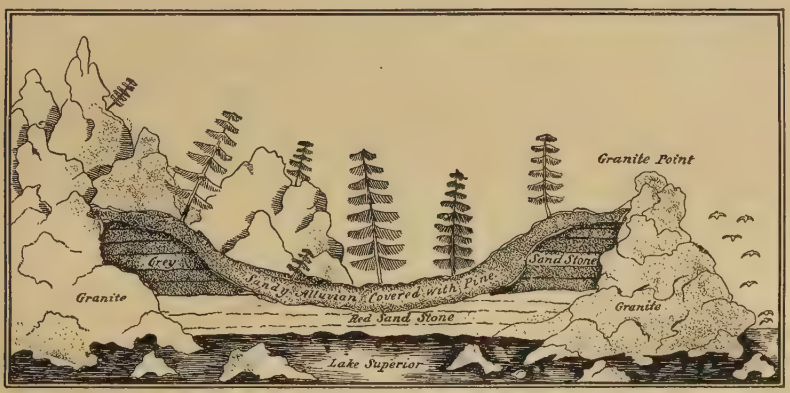


FIG. 9.—Schoolcraft's Section of Presque Isle.

the party divided, a portion going to Michilimackinac (now Mackinac), along the northern and eastern shores, and the rest keeping to the south, to Chicago, and eastward and north till the starting point was reached once more, one section of the party, with Governor Cass, leaving the lake near the southeastern end (at the mouth of the River du Schmein) and going overland to Detroit.

The narrative of the expedition of 1820 abounds with mineralogical and geological notes, which are in large part, however, of a supposed economic nature. The occurrence of gypsum at St. Martins Island was noted, the island of Michilimackinac itself being of "transition and compact" limestone. A colored section was given showing the relative position of granite and overlying sandstone between Presque Isle and Garlic River (fig. 9). The sandstone he described as overlapping the granite and fitting into its irregularities in a manner that "shows it to have assumed that position subsequently to the upheaving of the granite." The age of this sand rock he was unable to satis-

factorily determine, though its position seemed to him to indicate a near alliance to the "Old red sandstone."[a]

He described the finding of the large block of native copper (now in the U. S. National Museum in Washington), upon the edge of the Ontonagon River, giving a picture and offering some remarks on the probable origin of the same. In his report to Secretary J. C. Calhoun, under this same date, made with reference to the copper mines of Lake Superior, Schoolcraft dwelt in some detail upon the occurrence of frequent masses of drift copper, but stated that no body of the metal sufficiently extensive to mine profitably had been discovered. He, however, regarded it as probable that a more intimate knowledge of the resources of the country might result in the discovery of valuable ores of copper, in the working of which "occasional masses and veins of the native metal may materially enhance the advantage of mining." This prediction, it is scarcely necessary to say, has been abundantly verified.

Writing on the prevailing theories as to the origin and distribution of metals and gems, he remarked, "There is no reason that can be drawn from philosophical investigations to prove that these substances may not be abundantly found in the climates of the north, even upon the banks of the frozen ocean," their distribution being apparently wholly independent of climatic conditions.

The Dubuque lead ore he described as occurring in detached masses in the ocherous alluvial soil resting upon a calcareous rock referable to the Transition class (in the revision of his work, published in 1832, he made this Carboniferous), and also in veins penetrating the rock. The relationship existing between the rock and the residual clay did not seem, however, to have been recognized.[b]

The presence of extensive beds of coal about 40 miles southwest of Chicago, on the Fox River, was noted. The fact that bricks, made from clay occurring near Chicago, turned white was also noted, and explained on the ground that they were lacking in iron oxides.[c]

In his "Travels" Schoolcraft advanced the idea that there had been at some former period an obstruction in the channel of the Mississippi River at or near Grand Tower, in southern Illinois, whereby there was produced a stagnation of the current at an elevation of about 130

[a] The correct position of this sandstone remained long a matter of doubt and dispute. It is now considered as of Potsdam age.

[b] Since this mode of occurrence was referred to by subsequent explorers, it may be well to state here that the ore was originally in the limestone, from which it was liberated by decomposition and left to accumulate in the residual clay, representing the insoluble constituents.

[c] This has since been shown to be an error. These clays contain as much iron as others that may burn red. It is probable that, in the process of firing, this iron combines to form an iron-lime-magnesian silicate and is not oxidized to the extent of imparting the common brick-red color.

feet above the present ordinary watermark. This was made sufficiently evident to him by the general elevation and direction of the hills, which for several hundred miles above are separated by a valley from 20 to 25 miles wide. Wherever these hills disclosed rocky and precipitous fronts a series of distinctly-marked old water lines were observed. The Grand Tower and the contiguous promontories were regarded as but the dilapidated remains of this barrier. On the breaking away of the obstructions the water gradually receded into existing channels, by which the inland sea was gradually drained.

One of the most curious features of this paper lies in his pronounced acceptation of the accuracy of the various reports relative to the finding of living animals embedded in rocks of considerable geological antiquity. He mentioned the finding at Carthage, on the Genesee, of twelve or fifteen frogs embedded in a layer of packed clay marl about 9 feet below the surface, where they had apparently been buried since the diluvial era; also the finding of one in a geode in the Niagara limestone at Lockport. As bearing upon the same subject, he gave in his addenda a series of accounts of the finding of various living animals under equally impossible conditions, which he seems to accept without question.

In 1819–20 Maj. Stephen H. Long, under the direction of John C. Calhoun, Secretary of War, made an expedition from Pittsburg to the Rocky Mountains. With him were associated Thomas Say, entomologist, and Edwin James, botanist and geologist. The accounts of the expedition, compiled by Mr. James, contain numerous references to the geology of the region, which are of interest, considering the time at which they were made. The route of the expedition lay from Pittsburg down the Ohio to its mouth, up the Mississippi to St. Louis, and northwestward to Council Bluffs; thence westward along the Platte and South Platte to a point a little west of the one hundred and fifth meridian and north of the thirty-fifth parallel; across to the Arkansas, which was followed down to a point a little east of the one hundred and fourth meridian, where the party divided, one returning by the Arkansas and the other by the Canadian River.

Long's Expedition, 1819–20.

The reports on geology were, naturally, largely tinged with Wernerism. It was noted that, in the vicinity of the Rocky Mountains, only Secondary rocks occurred, Transition forms being entirely lacking. He noted, first, the occurrence of red sandstone resting immediately on the granite, rather indistinctly stratified, the strata sometimes inclined and sometimes horizontal; second, argillaceous or gray sandstone overlying the red and conforming to it in its inclination and carrying sometimes coal and iron; third, floetz trap, including greenstone and amygdaloid; and fourth, sand and gravel resting on the sandstones and extending over the Great Desert, this latter material being recognized as a product of

the disintegration of the primitive rocks of the mountains and which he thought "to have been deposited at a very remote period when the waters

FIG. 10.—Map of Long's expeditions, 1819-20.

of the primeval ocean covered the level of the Great Plain and the lower regions of the granitic mountains." The inclined position of

some of these Secondary rocks in the immediate vicinity of the mountains was noted, but some difficulty found in accounting for the same. "Subsequent to the deposition of these horizontally stratified rocks," he wrote, "their position has been somewhat changed, either by the action of some force beneath the primitive rocks, forcing them up to a greater elevation than they formerly possessed, or by the sinking down of the Secondary, produced by the operation of some cause equally unknown." This matter he again referred to, thinking it possible, though scarcely probable, that the great and abrupt change in the inclination of the strata in the parts near the granite might be due to the gradual wearing away by the agency of rivers of some portion of the sandstone, and that those rocks now found in an inclined position were detached portions of what was formerly the upper part of the strata which, having been undermined on their eastern side and supported by the granite on the western side, had fallen into their present position.

The presence of coal beds in the region of the Ozark Mountains was noted, and the associated limestones were set down as of Carboniferous age, as was also the limestone of the region of the lead mines.

An important suggestion was made relative to the possibility of obtaining water through bore holes sunk in the arid tract lying west of the Ozark Mountains. "It is not improbable," he wrote, "that the strata of many parts of this secondary formation toward its exterior circumference may vary from a horizontal to an inclined position, in consequence of which the water that falls in dew and rains in the hilly districts, becoming insinuated between curved stratifications, may descend toward the center of the formation under such circumstances as would insure its rising to the surface through well or bore holes sunk sufficiently to penetrate the veins."

James's Suggestion as to Artesian Wells.

The rocks of the Allegheny Mountains were classified as granular limestone, metalliferous limestones, transition, argillite, and sandstone. The report was accompanied by a volume of plates, which included geological sections on the thirty-fifth and forty-first parallels (fig. 11). These were intended to form continuations of Maclure's third and fifth sections, already noted (p. 228).

The second volume of Silliman's American Journal of Science, issued this year, had a long article by the editor—Sketches of a Tour in the Counties of New Haven and Litchfield, Conn., with notices of the Geology, Mineralogy, and Scenery—in which are described the various rocks passed over, among others the "primitive white marble" near New Milford. He described this as "a perfectly distinct bed in gneiss, which is found on both sides of it, and, of course, both above and below it," a sensible admixture of the two rocks being perceptible for some feet on both sides of the junction.

Geological Notes by Silliman, Olmsted, and Atwater.

Just what Silliman's preconceived opinions may have been is not apparent, but he remarked in a satisfied way that the associations were exactly what he had anticipated.

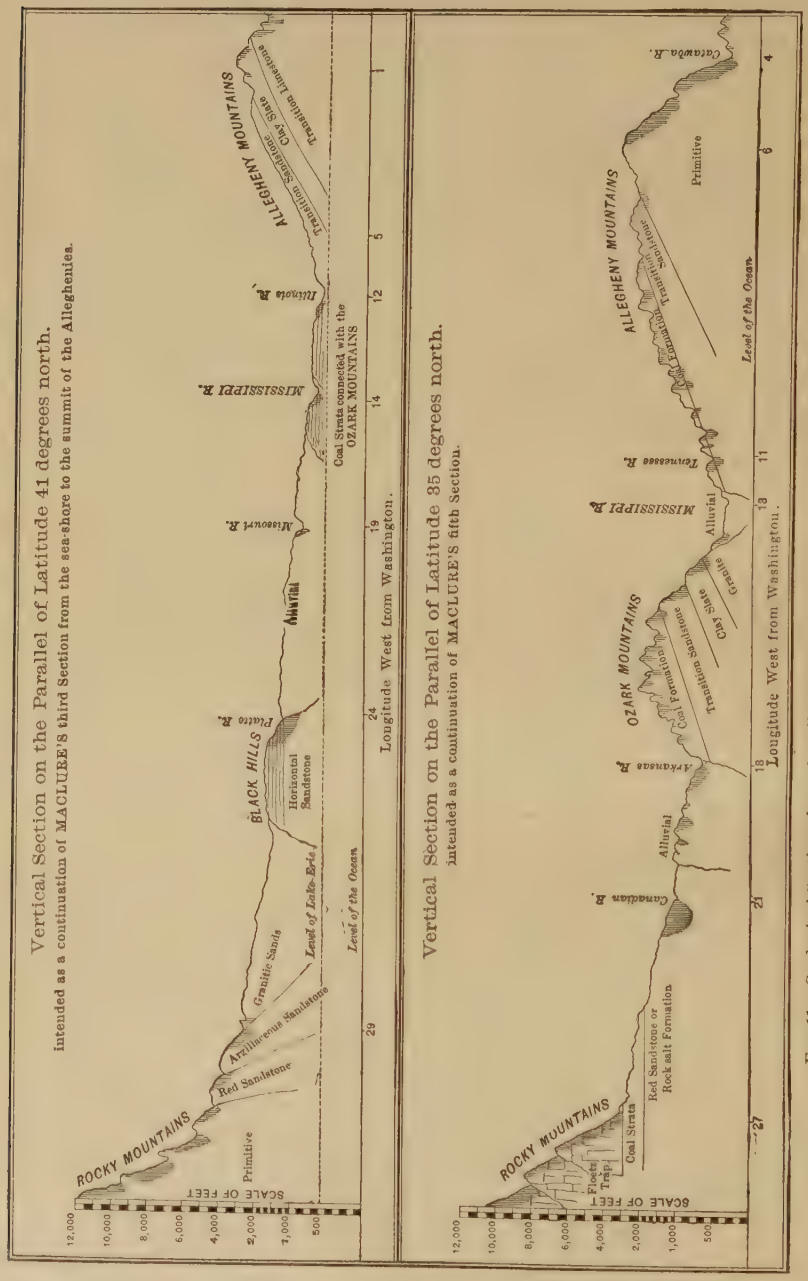


FIG. 11.—Geological Sections from the Allegheny to the Rocky Mountains. (After Edwin James.)

The geological relations of the marble appear to have been perfectly distinct, * * * and give us new reason to admire that wonderful order and harmony, little expected by people in general, which are found equally in the mineral kingdom as

in the animal and vegetable, and which afforded on analogical grounds the best reason to predict that the geological association of this marble would be found to be what it actually is.

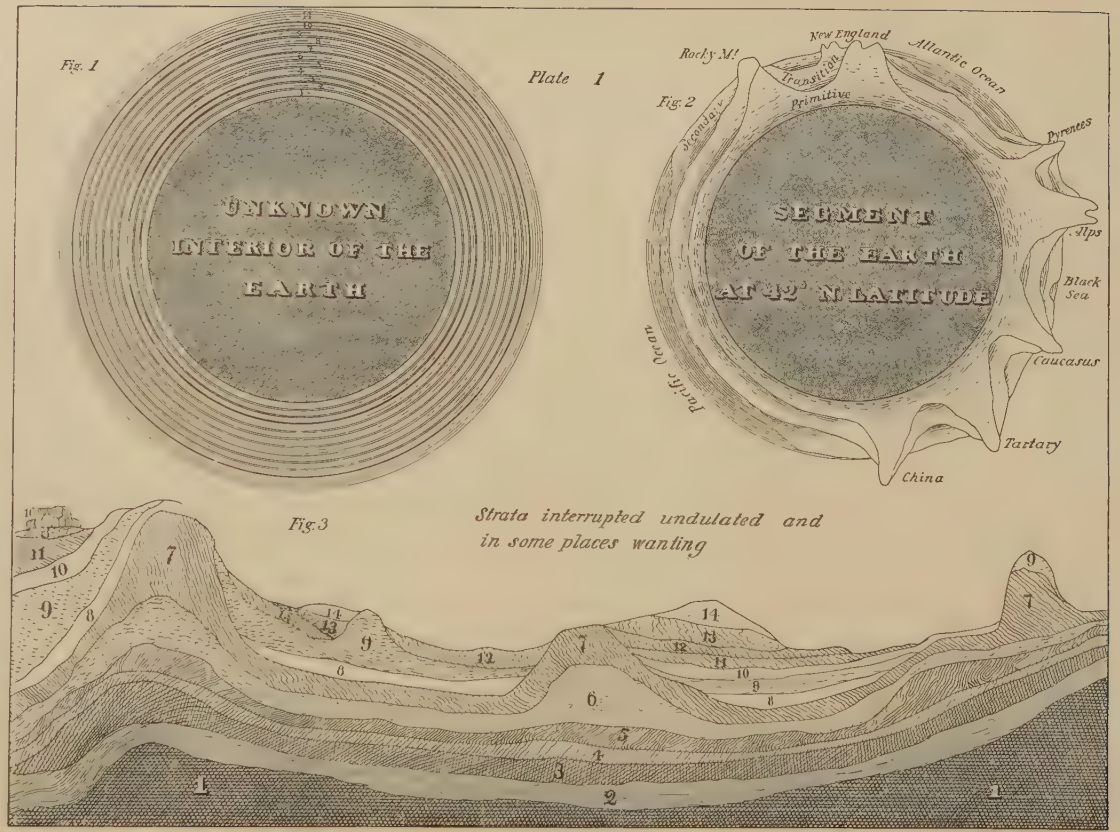
In the district are nearly all the important primitive rocks of Verneuil, while New Hampshire includes a considerable portion of his secondary formations.

In the same Journal, Denison Olmsted, then at Chapelhill, in North Carolina, announced the discovery of a red sandstone formation in North Carolina, which he had traced through the counties of Orange and Chatham, with a breadth, in one instance at least, of about 7 miles.

Caleb Atwater, in the same volume, noted the occurrence of ancient human bones, together with those of a mastodon or mammoth in Ohio, which indicated to his mind that the whole country had at one time been covered with water, which had made it "one vast cemetery of the beings of former ages."

In August, 1819, Dr. Samuel Akerly, who is first mentioned on page 223, read before the New York Lyceum an essay on the geology of the Hudson River and vicinity. This was published the year following in the form of a small duodecimo volume of 69 pages, and was accompanied by a colored section of the country from the neighborhood of Sandy Hook, New Jersey, northward through the Highlands in New York toward the Catskills. This section is mainly interesting as being the second attempt of its kind, being preceded by Eaton's transverse section from the Catskills to the Atlantic by only two years. The work consisted mainly of descriptive details relating to the lithological character of the various formations, and contained little else of value. Akerly was a disciple of Mitchill, whom he followed implicitly. He, however, questioned the Old Red Sandstone age of the Connecticut River sandstones, on account of bones of land animals having been found beneath them at Nyack. Since, however, credence is given to the reported finding of pine knots, earthen vessels, iron instruments, corn cobs, etc., under these same sandstones, and an iron instrument resembling a pipe in the anthracite coal of Rhode Island, little weight can be given even to his doubts.

Akerly on the Geology of the Hudson River, 1819.



EATON'S GEOLOGICAL SEGMENTS, 1820.

CHAPTER II.

THE EATONIAN ERA, 1820–1829.

According to Amos Eaton, 1820 marked the close of the first era of American geology. Accepting this, it may well be called the Maclurean era. The second, including the decade 1820–1829, may with equal propriety be called the Eatonian era, since Eaton was the most prominent worker as well as most profuse writer of the decade. In so doing, however, we must not overlook the fact that Eaton was favored with unusual opportunities, owing to the munificence of the Hon. Stephen Van Rensselaer and that he, himself, would perhaps have called it the Rensselaerian era.

The era opened with promise, and though the results as apparent on paper were not great, yet much was actually accomplished. It was, so to speak, a transition period, one in which the possibilities of State and Governmental surveys were seriously considered, and one, too, in which, so far as America was concerned, there was made the first systematic attempt at correlation by means of fossils. We meet, too, during this interval the first really satisfactory suggestion as to the source of the glacial drift, the first recognition of overturned folds and the possibility of the repetition of strata through faulting and displacement. The cosmogonists had largely disappeared and in their place were men who had learned to first observe and then deduce according to their understanding of the observed phenomena.

In 1820 Eaton published a second edition of his Index in the form of a small octavo volume of 286 pages. In this many of the earlier opinions were restated with little, if any, modification. His views relative to the origin of the continents were illustrated by the plate here reproduced, but the source of the energy which resulted in the elevation of the continents was still unexplained. He asserted:

Second Edition of Eaton's Index, 1820.

> That the rents made by the grand explosion, which first upturned and disfigured the rocky crust of the earth, were in a north and south direction. That those crossing the forty-second degree of north latitude were principally made at the Pyrenees and Alps in Europe, Caucasus, Tartary, and China in Asia, Rocky Mountain and New England in America.
>
> Whether this theory accords with the real origin of the present state of things or not is immaterial. It is introduced solely for the purpose of aiding the memory in studying the strata which we know do exist.

His views regarding the formation of caves in limestone were primitive and highly interesting:

When the waters of the ocean retired, the calcareous cement which now holds the shells together was in a state of soft paste. * * * After the waters retired the parts exposed to the sun's rays began to harden, contract, and crack into blocks. In some parts of the Heldeberg these blocks are of great extent, but I have seen acres of it where the stratum is very thin, checkered up into blocks from 2 to 10 feet square. Where the stratum is very thick and the fissures very long, large caverns were frequently formed, for the upper surface of the stratum was soon dried and indurated, while the whole remained soft a long time a few feet below the surface. If a stream of water happened to flow in the vicinity of the fissure, it would probably make its way into it and soon wash away the loose shells beneath the surface, which were merely enveloped in soft calcareous paste.

And further:

I have examined four of the largest caverns in the Heldeberg, and they all still exhibit conclusive evidence of their having been once in the state of mere fissures, and streams of water still traverse them all.

The majority of readers of to-day need scarcely be told that these limestone caves are formed wholly by a process of solution, by surface waters acting upon the strata only after they had reached, essentially, their present position and condition of induration. The streams of water which are found traversing the caves are incidental and consequent rather than causative.

His views on the formation of stalactitic iron ore, as exemplified in the Salisbury mine, are equally interesting. The ore, he believed to have been at one time specular iron imbedded in the talco-micaceous rock, and deposited in its present form from a state of fusion as recent as the time when the "Alluvion" was formed.

These stalactites are always suspended from masses intermixed with the soil in such a manner that it is evident the iron was in a state of fusion when in contact with it. The foot, which still adheres to all stalactitic specimens, proves that the heat was continued after the ore was confined in its present state. If it was ever fused down from any rock, it must have been the same out of which the alluvion embracing it was formed. The cause producing such a high heat I shall not attempt to assign; but that the ore exhibits sufficient evidence of its having been recently fused, I believe no one can question who has ever inspected it in place.

The reader of to-day need here also scarcely be told that all the peculiarities thus described were due not to heat, but to deposition from solution.

His views regarding many phenomena were, naturally, largely a reflection of those held by European authorities. In fact, one of the most striking features which impresses itself upon the reader of these early works is the attempt manifested by all to correlate the various formations, not of America alone, but American with European, on purely lithological grounds. If a specimen of sandstone, schist, or whatever it might be, resembled another from a different source, no matter how distant, this was considered evidence of its belonging to

the same formation. This method of correlation did not wholly disappear among American workers for many years, although Marcou was probably its latest ardent apostle. Eaton himself made an attempt to break away from it in his later work, as will be noted.

In the work under discussion the crystalline limestone or granular limestone and quartz, calcareous and granular quartz, and metalliferous limestone of the first edition were regarded as all belonging to one and the same stratum, but the position of this limestone, as shown near the east line of Danbury, Connecticut, confused him.

> Here the layers dip to the west; but in West Stockbridge and Alford they genally dip to the east, though there seems to be no conformity in their direction. Had some force, applied at the eastern edge, raised these mountain masses from the horizontal toward the vertical position, leaving some inclined to the east and forcing others beyond a vertical position, they would have presented their present inclination.

This is the first suggestion of anything resembling an overturned fold which had thus far been made. He was correct in his observations, but the science had not sufficiently advanced to enable him to realize the possibilities. It will be noted, too, that he was working in a region, the correct interpretation of which has been a source of dispute for nearly three-quarters of a century. The glacial drift was, as in the first edition of his work, still classed as alluvial, and the materials composing Long Island and the coastal plain were regarded as of a common origin.

Eaton made use of Le Duc and Jameson's awkward name of *Geest* to include the "most universal of all strata," which was found occupying "every inch of dry land which is neither naked rock nor covered with alluvion," and the character of which "is generally indicated by the rock upon which it lies and by those which have recently disappeared." Although thus defined, in his attempt to outline its distribution he failed to discriminate between the true residual material and that which is drift.

What he had to say on the subject of organic relics or fossils was merely an adaptation from Martin's *Systema reliquiorum*. He classified these relics under two heads, *petrifactions* and *conservatives*. The petrifactions or *substitutions*, as he sometimes called them, were "those relics which are entirely made up of mineral substances, which have gradually run into the places occupied by organized bodies, as those bodies decayed, and assumed their forms." The conservatives or preservations, on the other hand, were "those relics or parts thereof which still consist of the very same substances which originally composed the living, organized being."

These relics were named by annexing the termination *lithos*, a stone, to the scientific name of the living organism; as, for instance, a fossil fish would be ichthyolithos, though the terminology in English he often modified from *lithos* to *lite*. Adopting this nomenclature, he

grouped all organic relics under nine heads, as follows: Genus I, Mammodolite; Genus II, Ornitholite; Genus III, Amphibiolite; Genus IV, Ichthyolite; Genus V, Entomolite; Genus VI, Helmintholite; Genus VII, Concholite; Genus VIII, Erismatolite; Genus IX, Phytolite.

In 1821 Eaton was employed by S. Van Rensselaer to make a geological and agricultural survey of Rensselaer County, New York. His report, printed in 1822, formed an octavo pamphlet of 70 pages, and was accompanied by a geological section, extending from the Onondaga Salt Springs across the county to Williams College in Massachusetts. The first thirty pages of the report were given up to discussions of the character and distribution of the various kinds of rocks and soils, and the remainder to methods of culture and an agricultural calendar.

Eaton's Survey of Rensselaer County.

The rocks of the county, as well as those of Washington County on the north and of Columbia County on the south, were regarded as chiefly belonging to the transition formations. Secondary limerock resting on the graywacke was found in Schaghticoke about four miles east of the Hudson and in the northern part of Greenbush. As to whether the argillite along the eastern margin of the county was transition or primary, he was in doubt. As with his contemporaries, he based his opinions largely upon lithological data, quite failing to realize that rocks of widely varying age may more or less resemble each other, according to local conditions and the amount of metamorphism they may have undergone. Passing westward from Williams College, the various rocks met with, as shown in his section, and described are (1) granular and primitive limestone, (2) metalliferous or transition limestone, (3) argillite, (4) metalliferous limestone again, (5) a second band of argillite, (6) graywacke with sporadic patches of (7) compact secondary limestone, (8) secondary or calcareous sandstone, and (9) argillaceous graywacke, semi-indurated argillite, and clay slate. The first three were represented with steep westerly dips passing under the graywacke, which constitutes the principal formation.

On November 17, 1820, the Hon. J. B. Gibson read a paper before the American Philosophical Society, which was published in the Transactions of that year, on the trap rocks of the Conewago Hills near Middletown, Dauphin County, and Stony Ridge near Carlisle, Dauphin County, Pennsylvania. He described the mode of weathering into bowlders, and rightly argued that such was due wholly to atmospheric agencies and did not indicate an original concretionary structure. He seemed to regard the columnar structure in this class of rocks as due also to decomposition, mentioning as an example the columns of the Giant's Causeway, "which exhibit regular prismatic form only when it has long been exposed to the action of the atmosphere."

J. B. Gibson on Trap Rock, 1820.

He did not regard the trap of the Conewago Hills as igneous, but that of Stony Hill presented to him an appearance more decisively volcanic. This did not, however, necessarily mean that there may have once existed a crater here.

These observations of Gibson relative to the mode of decomposition of the trappean rock are of interest when taken in connection with observations of other individuals of about this period in North Carolina.

It appears that the attention of the Rev. James Hall and Zachariah Lewis had been called to what are now known to be small trappean dikes on the Yadkin River, near Salisbury, which had undergone decomposition into small bowlder-like masses. The fact that these dikes had at one time occupied rifts in older rocks which had largely disappeared through decomposition, leaving them standing in wall-like masses, entirely escaped the observation of the two gentlemen named, and they were consequently described as probably of human workmanship.

In response to a request of Dr. Samuel L. Mitchill, Mr. John Beckwith made an examination of the occurrences and reported the result in a letter printed in the American Journal of Science for 1822. Beckwith described in considerable detail the occurrence of the dikes and the stages of transition from the solid bowlder-like masses to the supposed interstitial cement. While apparently not realizing completely the fact that their then appearance might be due to decomposition, his description is such as to leave no doubt in the mind of the present reader. As to the exact character of the material itself, he was somewhat at a loss, but, on the whole, inclined to believe it to be basaltic, though perhaps of aqueous rather than igneous origin.

The work of Thomas Nuttall merits attention here only on account of the time of its accomplishment. Nuttall himself was not a geologist, nor can he be considered an American. His principal work was of a botanical and ornithological nature, the paper, Observations on the Geological Structure of the Valley of the Mississippi, being his sole contribution to the literature of geology. This was read before the Philadelphia Academy in December, 1820, and in its printed form occupies 38 pages of the journal of the society.

Nuttall's Observations, 1820.

Nuttall's travels took him along the southern shore of Lake Erie to Detroit; thence by canoe along the coast of Lake Huron to Michilimackinac; thence southwestward to Green Bay, Wisconsin, and by way of the Fox and Wisconsin (Ouisconsin) rivers to the Mississippi, near Prairie du Chien, and southward to St. Louis. This and other trips up the Missouri and Arkansas rivers gave him ample opportunity for such superficial observations as he was competent to make. These observations consisted largely of conjectures as to the geographic

limits of the secondary formations, which he found here to consist mainly of limestone strongly resembling the mountain limestone of Derbyshire in England, and he announced himself as "fully satisfied that almost every fossil shell figured and described in the Petrifica Derbiensia of Martin" was to be met with throughout the great calcareous platform of the Mississippi Valley. The limits and character of the "Ancient Marine Alluvium," its fossil and mineral contents were discussed; the essay concluding with some observations on the Transition Mountains of Arkansas, with brief notes on the hone slate of Washita.

In 1820 there appeared also H. H. Hayden's Geological Essays. These are of especial interest as dealing particularly with the Tertiary and more recent alluvial deposits of the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, forming what is now known as the coastal plain. The work is verbose in the extreme and more argumentative than logical. Indeed, were it not for its historical interest and for the light which is thrown upon the crudities of early observation and deduction, it would be scarcely worth considering at all.

Hayden's Essays, 1820.

After referring to the geographical limits of this coastal plain, as defined and mapped by Maclure, and combating the opinions of previous observers [including Latrobe, Stoddard, and others] to the effect that it was formed by flood tides and the winds acting on materials cast up by the sea or through the transporting powers of the great rivers, Hayden proceeded to elaborate his own theories in a way as ingenious as it now seems improbable. "Viewing the subject in all its bearings, there is no circumstance that affords so strong evidence of the cause of the formation (i. e., the coastal plain) as that of its having been deposited by a general current, which at some unknown period flowed impetuously across the whole continent of America, and that from northeast to southwest." The course of this current he assumed depended on that of the general current of the Atlantic Ocean, the waters of which rose to such a height that "it overran its ancient limits and spread desolation on its adjacent shores."

In seeking a cause for this general current the author referred, first, to the seventh chapter of the book of Genesis, "For yet seven days, and I will cause it *to rain* upon the earth forty days and forty nights, and *every living substance that I have made will I destroy from off the face of the earth.*" He then proceeded to show the inadequacy of this cause alone; the water being thus equally distributed over the ocean and the land, there "could be no tendency to cause a current in the former." Some other cause must therefore be sought, and fortunately his imagination proved equal to the task.

Accepting as probable the suggestion of "a writer of no common celebrity," presumably Kirwan, to the effect that the cause of the general deluge was the melting of the ice at the two poles of the earth,

and that this was occasioned by the sun deviating from the ecliptic, he proceeded to explain in his own way how this might be brought about, though acknowledging that no positive testimony could possibly be adduced to substantiate the fact.

Having admitted the possibility of the earth's changing its position so that the sun would pass "immediately over the two poles upon an unknown meridian," he showed that there would then result a rapid dissolution of the existing ice caps, such as would yield an ample supply of material, it being only necessary to give it direction. Considering as essential to the problem only the northern hemisphere, he remarked that from this polar cap there are but two outlets the one into the Pacific Ocean through the narrow Bering Strait and the other through the wider channel between Greenland and Lapland into the Atlantic. Hence, when the melting ensued, by far the larger volume of water passed into the latter ocean.

No sooner was this operation established, and this accession of strength and power thrown into the Atlantic Ocean in particular, than its tide began to rise above its common limits accompanied by a consequent current, both constantly increasing, the one in height and the other in rapidity, proportioned to the increase of power at the focus. * * * At the commencement of this frightful drama the current, it is highly probable, was divided by the craggy heights of Spitzbergen and a part thrown into the White Sea, while the other was thrown back upon the eastern and southern coast of Greenland, and from thence in a southwestern direction until it struck the southeastern coast of Labrador, along which it swept through the straits of Belle Isle, across Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and along the Atlantic coast into the Gulf of Mexico. * * * In a short space of time, the southern and eastern coast of Labrador, over which this current was urged with increasing force, was desolated. The soil * * * was hurled adrift and * * * carried across the country into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and across a part of New England into the sea, or general current of the ocean. Continuing to rise, the waters swept across Davis Strait and rolled their tumultuous surges into Hudson Bay, embracing the whole coast of Labrador, while the unequal current of the St. Lawrence was *forced back and upward to its parent source.* * * *

At length the floods of the pole forming a junction with Baffins Bay and the Arctic Sea, defying all bounds, overran their ancient limits and hurled their united forces, in dread confusion, across the bleak regions of the north to consummate the awful scene. Thus lakes and seas uniting formed one common ocean which was propelled with inconceivable rapidity across the continent between the great chain of mountains into the Gulf of Mexico and probably over the unpeopled wilds of South America into the Southern Ocean. Fulfilled in this way were the awful denunciations of an offended God, by the sure extermination of every beast of the field and every creeping thing that creepeth upon the face of the earth.

The argument used to substantiate or in favor of the probability of the above causes can not be dwelt upon here. But to these causes he believed to be due not merely the alluvial deposits of the coastal plain, but as well the barrenness of soil of the rocks in Labrador and the northeastern portion of the continent, and also the general phenomena of the glacial drift, the bowlders of the latter being conceived as transported by floating ice.

While all this was taking place on the American continent, the material supplied by the melting of the south Polar ice cap was finding its way northward over Asia, carrying with it to northern Siberia the mammoth, rhinoceros, and other gigantic animal remains now there found. In this last, it will be observed, he followed Pallas.

The opinion held by many to the effect that the deltas of rivers were composed exclusively of alluvion brought down in the course of time and deposited at their mouths, he regarded as "a flagrant dereliction from truth and every principle of sound reasoning and established fact." Such he regarded as formed in part of natural alluvion of the rivers, in part of wind-blown sand and dust, and in part of waste from the fields due to cultivation and the cutting away of forests. Thus early he recognized the importance of man as a geological agent, and also that of the wind. He nowhere in the whole 150 pages of the discussion, however, recognized the now well-known fact that deltas are formed only at the mouths of rivers emptying into tideless seas.

Strangely enough, although one of the earliest to recognize the extent and importance of the alluvial formations, Hayden seems to have had very hazy notions regarding the origin of their materials. The belief held by many to the effect that every species of rock is liable to a slow but progressive form of disintegration and decomposition was to him rank heresy, as "tantamount to a libel against the letter and spirit of Holy Writ." Not but that some rocks may indeed decompose, such as the "micaceous schistus," but "granite and other rocks of like nature, where the quartz feldspar and mica are perfectly combined, are practically indestructible;" and the arguments he used to prove this are precisely those used to-day to prove the rapidity of the destructive process—that is, the evidence furnished by old stone monuments and buildings. Blinded by his religious prejudices and preconceived notions, he refused to accept proof of such decay, even when confronted by it in unmistakable forms, referring to such as but the "débris of the incompact or imperfectly formed mass that served as the covering, as it were, of the rocks, and which, being destitute of a cement, had fallen away to sand."

Even that "the soil which covers the face of the earth was produced by the disintegration of rocks" was to him an opinion unfounded both in natural as well as in moral philosophy, and betrayed a want of attention to the plans of the Omnipotent. "Who can or will contend that the mountains of our earth are becoming more and more depressed by the disintegration of the rocks of which they are composed? * * * Fortunately, however, it is not so. The Great Author of Nature intended it otherwise, and they are, and ever have been, the same in height, in all human probability, that they were from the commencement of time."

Hayden was the first to suggest the name *Ternary* for formations of alluvial origin and more recent than the secondary. The secondary formations he regarded as "the results of a natural operation;" that is, as natural deposits from water, probably in a state of perfect tranquility. The alluvial, on the other hand, were the results of "accidental operations."

These essays were very favorably reviewed by Silliman in the third volume (1821) of his journal, even the idea of the fusion of the polar ice cap being allowed to pass with no more serious criticism than to suggest that the flood of waters might have been produced through the expulsion of the same from cavities in the earth. J. E. De Kay, writing in 1828, ventured, however, to take exception to some of the expressed views regarding drift bowlders. He wisely suggested that since the speculative part of geology is but a series of hypotheses we should in every case admit that which explains the phenomena in the simplest possible manner. To his mind the simplest manner of explaining the presence of bowlders of primitive rocks scattered over a secondary or alluvial region was to suppose that such had been, as igneous materials, extruded through all superincumbent strata, forming peaks which have since been destroyed by some convulsion of nature or by the resistless tooth of time, the bowlders thus being but fragments which had escaped destruction, though their place of extrusion had become completely obscured.

FIG. 12.—Horace H. Hayden.

Hayden's career was varied and interesting. Early thrown on his own resources, with an ardent desire for knowledge and craving for travel, he went to sea at the age of fourteen, making two voyages to the West Indies, after which he returned to his school and his books. When sixteen years of age he was bound out to an apprenticeship with an architect, with whom he served until he reached his majority, when he once more sailed for the West Indies and established himself at Point à Pitre in Guadeloupe Island, one of the Lesser Antilles. Ill health, however, finally drove him back to America, where he found employment in his profession in Connecticut and New York, with occasional intervals of teaching, in which, it was stated, he was very successful.

Sketch of Hayden.

Through accident his attention was turned to dentistry, and with no preliminary training and only such knowledge as could be gained by reading, he established himself in the practice of that profession in Baltimore, somewhere about 1824, being then, it will be observed, between fifty and sixty years of age. In this work he is represented as

being highly successful, rising rapidly in public confidence and holding the highest professional rank in the city. When the American Society of Dental Surgeons was established, he became its first president. Aside from his profession he devoted himself to studies in physiology and pathology, as well as geology.

Wilson's Exceptions to Hypotheses of Mitchill. 1821.

To Volney and Mitchill's hypotheses (mentioned on p. 232) to the effect that the deep gorge of the Potomac at Harpers Ferry, of the Hudson at West Point, the Delaware near Easton, the Schuylkill northwest of Hamburg, and the Susquehanna below Harrisburg, were torn open by the pressure of the waters of Lake Ontario, Mr. J. W. Wilson, in the American Journal of Science for 1821, took exception. He gave altitudes showing that the waters of the supposed lake could never have risen within 500 feet of the summit of the highlands at West Point without discharging over the summits of the mountains at Harrisburg; or through Lake Champlain into the Sorel and St. Lawrence before rising within 1,400 feet of Butler Hill, near West Point. These were good arguments, but the explanations offered by Mr. Wilson were in themselves by no means satisfactory. "Is not" he wrote "the best theory of the earth, that the Creator, in the beginning, at least at the general deluge, formed it with all its present grand characteristic features?" To this the editor (Silliman) responded in a footnote that "The Creator undoubtedly brought all matter into being and established the laws which govern it; the operation of those laws then is always a fair subject of discussion, and although it is the *shortest* it is not the most *instructive* course to *cut the knot* where it may be *untied*."

Early accounts of the geology and mineralogy of North America were eagerly seized upon by foreign scientists, as well as those interested from a spirit of gain only. Thus, in 1822 there was published in Hamburg, in the form of a small octavo pamphlet of 124 pages, a series of extracts from the American Journal of Science and Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences, entitled Beitrage Zur Mineralogie u. Geologie des Nordlichen America's nach Amerikanischen Zeitschriften bearbeitet von Heinrich von Struve. The articles abstracted were Schoolcraft's account of the native copper on the north shores of Lake Superior;[a] A. G. Jessup's geological and mineralogical observations on a portion of the northern border of New York;[b] Vanuxem's description and analyses of the Wollastonite (Taffelspath's) of Willsborough, New York;[b] John Dixon's mineralogical and geological observations on a part of North and South Carolina; Gerard Troost's description of a mineral resembling amber found in the sands

[a] American Journal of Science, III, 1821, No. 2.

[b] Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences, Philadelphia, December, 1821.

of Cape Sable;[a] and miscellaneous notes on the geology and mineralogy of North America from the same publishers.[b] There was also given a description of a collection of North American minerals. A little over four pages were devoted to a description of the marbles of Pennsylvania; Connecticut; Vermont; Stockbridge, Massachusetts; and Thomaston, Maine, the descriptions being naturally limited to specimens and not to their occurrence in the field.

In 1822 Dr. Thomas Cooper, president of South Carolina College, published in the American Journal of Science an article of nearly forty pages, giving his views on volcanoes and volcanic substances.

Thomas Cooper's Ideas Concerning Volcanoes, 1822.

He defined a volcano as a natural vent in the crust of the earth, made by subterranean fires to afford exit for gases, vapors, and solid substances that have been exposed to the action of intense heat in the bowels of the earth. The seat of the volcano he believed to be below or within the oldest granite. In action, the volcano is described as giving off smoke and flame derived from contact with coal strata, the eruption being usually accompanied by electric light, the source of which he acknowledged as problematical. Compared with all this error, his recognition as lavas of the porphyries in the vicinity of Boston and the Triassic traps of the eastern United States stands out in remarkable contrast.

FIG. 13.—Thomas Cooper.

Cooper, or "Old Coot," as he was called during the period of his activity at the South, seems to have been a queer character—"a learned, ingenious, scientific, and talented madcap," as President Adams is said to have called him. He

Sketch of Cooper.

was not a geologist, excepting in books, but rather an educator and theorist. He was born in London in 1759 and educated at Oxford, where he paid chief attention to the classics, though his inclination was for the sciences. He came to America in 1795 and settled down for a time to the practice of law at Northampton, Pennsylvania.

A restless, aggressive spirit soon took him into the political field, where the violence of his newspaper attacks caused him at one time to be imprisoned for six months and fined. After his release he was appointed first land commissioner and then judge, being removed from the latter office for arbitrary conduct. He then turned his attention to chemistry and became in turn professor of chemistry in Dickinson College in Carlisle, professor of chemistry and mineralogy in the University of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia, and professor of

[a] American Journal of Science, 1821. [b] Volume IV, 1822, No. 2.

chemistry, mineralogy, natural philosophy, and law (!) in the University of Virginia. At the last named place he served from 1817 to 1820, being finally forced to resign on account of the opposition to his liberal teachings on the part of the Presbyterians.

From Charlottesville he went to Columbia, South Carolina, where he served as professor of chemistry (1820–21) and then as president (1821–1834), being here again compelled to resign for his violent liberalism in matters relating to science and religion. Queerly enough, a committee appointed by the State legislature in 1831 to investigate his conduct with a view to his removal failed to make out a case, and the charges were dismissed. His final undoing would seem to have been parallel with that of the sick man whose case his physician was unable to diagnose specifically and the record of whose death was put down to "general cussedness."

Cooper, as above noted, was not a geologist, as the term is now used, but comes in for recognition here on account of the prominent part he played in early educational movements relating to the introduction of the science in the universities. It was through his influence that the chair of geology at the South Carolina College was established, to which Vanuxem was called in 1821, and Le Conte in 1857. At the time Cooper assumed the reins in Columbia geology was taught at no other institution in America except Yale, and the only available text books were the reprints of Bakewell's geologies with Silliman's notes. To the latter, on account of the acceptation of Mosaic doctrines, Cooper took violent exception, and attacked them, first in lectures to his classes and subsequently in his pamphlet on The Connection between Geology and the Pentateuch (published in 1833).

A man of powerful intellect, but a reckless busybody. Bold and aggressive, he "walked roughshod over men's opinions and suffered the inevitable consequences." His personal appearance must have been as peculiar as his conduct. "He was less than 5 feet high and his head was the biggest part of the whole man. He was a perfect taper from the side of his head down to his feet. He looked like a wedge with a head on it," is the way it is expressed by one of his old pupils.

The credulity of even the scientific men of this date (1822) can not be better illustrated than by referring to an account by Schoolcraft of the finding of supposed human footprints in limestone belonging to the "Secondary" formation (Lower Carboniferous), on the west bank of the Mississippi River at St. Louis.

Supposed human footprints in limestone, 1822.

These so-called footprints (see fig. 14) were described as those of a man, standing erect, with his heels drawn in and his toes turned outward. The distance between the heels by accurate measurment was 6¾ inches, and between the toes 13½ inches. Attention was called to the fact that the impressions were not those of feet accus-

tomed to a close shoe, the toes being too much spread and the foot flattened. The length of the foot was 10½ inches, width across the spread toes 4 inches, and at the swell of the heels 2½ inches. Public attention was first called to these prints by the Rev. Frederick Rapp, the head of the religious sect "Harmonites," who had them removed to his village of Harmony, and who, it is said, taught that they were the impressions of the feet of the Saviour.

According to Schoolcraft, every appearance warranted the conclusion that the impressions were made at a time when the rock was soft

FIG. 14.—Supposed human footprints in limestone. (After D. D. Owen.)

enough to receive them by pressure, and the marks of the feet were natural and genuine. In this opinion, he stated, Governor Cass coincided. He acknowledged, however, there were difficulties in the way of accepting this belief, and one of these was the want of tracks leading to and from them. He could only account for this on the supposition that the toe prints might have pointed inland, "in which case we should be at liberty to conjecture that the person making them had landed from the Mississippi and proceeded no farther into the interior."

Col. Thomas H. Benton, of Missouri, to whom Schoolcraft wrote concerning the footprints, differed with him and regarded them as artificial, but his reasons therefor were not sufficient to convince Schoolcraft.

The matter was brought up again by David Dale Owen in 1842 in an article entitled Regarding Human Footprints in Solid Limestone, which appeared in the American Journal of Science of that date. Owen here described the appearance of the tracks, and quoted the opinions of Maclure, Troost, Say, and Lesueur to the effect that they were of artificial origin. The English paleontologist, Mantell, was, however, inclined to the opinion of Schoolcraft. Owen himself regarded the tracks as artificial for essentially the same reasons as those advanced by Benton, to the effect that, first, the footprints were not continuous, but isolated; second, this was but a solitary instance of human footprints in solid limestone; third, he could not conceive of the sudden consolidation of compact limestone after having received, while in a plastic state, such impressions; and, last, because of the age, nature, and position of the rock, and because no human remains had hitherto been discovered in any similar formation. He regarded them as having been carved by aborigines with stone implements. In this he was doubtless correct.

Of interest at this time, as bearing upon the subject of faulting and displacement, is a paper in the American Journal of Science by D. H. Barnes, containing a geological section of the Canaan Mountains in Connecticut, together with observations on the soils of the region. In the explanation of his section, beginning at the bottom, the beds are described as (1) clay loam with bowlders; (2) transition limestone; (3) white quartz, grading on one side into limestone and on the other into clay slate; (4) slate; (5) graywacke slate. The strata then repeat themselves in the same order, the graywacke slate forming the summit of the knob. The entire formation is described as appearing "to have been broken off from the primitive tract on the east of it, and to have sunken down about one thousand feet perpendicularly." Regarding the beds and their associations on Hancock Mountain, he concluded that the strata on the top of the mountains might be considered as originally parts of the same bed now at the base of Canaan Mountain, whence they had "been disrupted by some mighty force," the eastern part remaining firm, while the western settled down to its present position. Referring to Maclure's map, he found that the two formations discussed "butt against each other in a line nearly straight for more than 300 miles." This he accounted for by supposing "that some mighty convulsion has rent asunder the continent from the St. Lawrence to the ocean," though what this force may have been he

Early suggestions of faulting, 1822.

left for others to decide. He, however, thought it probable that it operated from beneath, "and that, after it had opened for itself a vent, and escaped through the rift caused by its action, the rock strata of the western part fell into the cavity which had previously contained the imprisoned agent."

Bigsby's Work in Canada, 1823.

In 1823 Dr. John J. Bigsby, a surgeon of the British army stationed in Canada, read before the Geological Society of London a paper, subsequently published in their transactions, on the Geology and Geography of Lake Huron. He noted that the rocks of the north shore of the lake were mainly primitive—granite, gneiss, basanite—quartz rock, conglomerate, and greenstone. The other shores were described as occupied by secondary rocks, frequently fossiliferous, which he regarded as forming part of an immense basin, which, "extending probably without interruption from the southern shore of Lake Winnipeg, spreads itself over the greater part of lakes Superior, Huron, and Simcoe, the whole of lakes Michigan, Erie, and Ontario, much of the western part of the State of New York, the whole of the States of Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan, and the rest of the valley of the Mississippi." On Thessalon Island was found a new species of *Orthoceratite*, which, though described and figured, was not named. Drummond Island yielded also corals and a trilobite—*Isaphus platycephalus*. Naturally no attempt was made to determine the relative age of the rocks by means of these fossils.

Bigsby on the Geology of Montreal, 1824.

In the year following, Doctor Bigsby had an article in the Annals of the Lyceum of Natural History (New York) on the geology of Montreal. He described the lowest rock of the region as a trap of a kind unique in the Canadas, and illustrating "in a beautiful manner the affinity existing between the formation of which it is a member and the primitive class in general."

A horizontal shell limestone of a bluish-black color he noted as forming the floor of the plain surrounding the hill on which the city stands, and through this hill, as a center, the passage in all directions of a large number of trap dikes.

The sandstone of St. Ann's he rightly described as underlying the limestone, and noted the presence of fossil *Lingulæ*, *Terebratulæ*, *Trilobites*, and *Orthoceratites*.

In the consideration of the sands and gravels constituting the so-called alluvial, he followed the trend of opinion of his time, regarding them as products of the vast inland seas which succeeded the deluge.

The coastal plain of the Eastern United States, which up to this time had been studied in detail only by Maclure and H. H. Hayden, was in 1823 made the subject of a special essay by John Finch, then

professor of geology and mineralogy in Birmingham, England. This appears to have been the first attempt at a subdivision of the Tertiary deposits and their scientific correlation, and was, beyond question, the most important contribution to the stratigraphy of the region that had thus far appeared.

Finch's Subdivision of the Tertiary, 1823.

From an examination of all available data, as well as from a personal inspection of a part of the area, Finch was led to conclude that this formation, as existing in America, was identical and contemporaneous with the newer Secondary and Tertiary formations of Europe and other countries.

In this same year Finch gave also a short sketch of the geology of the country near Easton, Pennsylvania, his paper being accompanied by a small colored map and catalogue of minerals. According to J. P. Lesley, this was the first paper on the geology of Pennsylvania to appear in the pages of the American Journal of Science.

The paper on the coastal plain, above noted, is by all means the most important of Finch's geological publications, though in the American Journal of Science for 1826 he had a brief "Memoir" (3½ pages) on the red-brown sandstones of the Connecticut Valley and New Jersey, where he expressed the opinion that such should be considered as belonging to the new-red or variegated sandstones of Europe rather than to the old-red, as contended by some. In this he was right.

In 1823, too, Denison Olmsted, "a Connecticut school-teacher," was authorized by the president of the State board of agriculture of North Carolina to make a geological survey of the State. This act is sometimes referred to with sectional pride as being the first survey undertaken under State auspices.[a]

Olmsted's Work in North Carolina, 1823.

Olmsted's first report, a pamphlet of 44 pages, appeared under date of 1824 and was mainly of an economic character, dealing only with the distribution in the State of such substances as graphite, gold, coal, and building stones.

His second report appeared in 1827, but bore on the title-page the date 1825. He naturally dwelt upon the agricultural possibilities of the country and the suitability of its limestones and marls for fertilizing purposes. Some space was devoted to the great slate formation[b]

[a] The work of Eaton in New York in 1824 was the first sufficiently thorough and systematic survey to be dignified as a geological survey, though as this was done under the patronage of Hon. Stephen Van Rensselaer, it can not be considered a public survey. To Massachusetts credit must be given for the first geological survey made at the expense of the State, the same being begun under the direction of Rev. Edward Hitchcock in 1830. (See p. 307.)

[b] Olmsted's great slate formation lies west of and parallel with the freestone coal formation (Triassic) occupying more or less of the counties of Person, Orange, Chatham, Randolph, Montgomery, Cabarrus, Anson, and Mecklenburg and corresponds, therefore, to the Huronian of Kerr and recent workers.

and its included rocks and minerals. He noted that the "whole section of country from the great slate formation to the Blue Ridge" is granitic, containing numerous subordinate formations, such as mica-slate and greenstone, with beds of iron ore, etc., and described with some detail the Natural Wall of Rowan, which was supposed by early observers (see p. 255) to be the work of human hands, but which he rightly ascribed to the natural jointing and decomposition of a basic igneous rock. The "peculiar assemblage of rocks that cross the Dan River at Buckingham" he classed as transition.

In his "conclusion" he remarked that "the rocks are not, as in most other countries, particularly New England, exposed on the surface, but are very generally concealed by a thick covering of clay and sand." This he rightly regarded as having resulted from the decomposition of the rocks themselves, and not due to a deluge of waters, "as might at first be thought."

Olmsted was not primarily an investigator. He himself, as we are informed by his biographer, always regarded it as his more appropriate sphere of effort not so much to cultivate science as to teach and diffuse it. Graduated at Yale in 1813, and for a time employed as tutor there, he in 1817 was appointed to the chair of chemistry in the University of North Carolina. While here he conceived the idea of a State geological and mineralogical survey and laid the plan before the board of internal improvements in 1821, with the offer to himself perform the entire work gratuitously, asking only an appropriation of $100 (to be afterwards renewed or not at the pleasure of the board), to defray his necessary expenses in traveling. This proposition was, however, declined,[a] only to be renewed a year or two later, with the result that in 1823 the assembly authorized the board of agriculture to have such a survey made and appropriated the sum of $250 a year, for a period of four years, to carry it out. The

Sketch of Olmsted.

FIG. 15.—Denison Olmsted.

[a] Referring to this failure to secure assistance, Olmsted, under date of January 9, 1822, wrote to a friend: "But the Legislature (the Senate, I mean) has, it seems, saved me any trouble on their account. I, however, feel most highly gratified and greatly encouraged at the handsome manner in which my proposition was treated by the Board of Improvement; and the readiness with which the resolution was adopted by the Commons inspires the hope that something may yet be accomplished at the public expense. But my feelings are too much interested in this project to yield to this failure; I hope to do something by my own exertions next summer, and trust the hospitality of the people of the State will make amends for my poverty. If I can live (as I think I can) on the charity of the people, I don't know what need I shall have of the public money; for Mr. M——— says he will lend me a horse."

work thus inaugurated was interrupted in 1825 by his call to the professorship of mathematics and natural philosophy in Yale College, but was taken up again almost immediately by Dr. Elisha Mitchell and continued for two years longer (see p. 285).

The mental breadth of Olmsted is shown in the fact that while occupying this position at Yale he prepared in 1831 a two-volume work on natural philosophy, a text-book on astronomy in 1839, and became well known throughout the scientific world through his papers on meteoric showers and the zodiacal light.

Of his personal character it is written:

> His uniform kindness and courtesy of demeanor and patience in imparting instruction, the excellent moral influence which he always exerted, as well by his consistent Christian example as by his personal counsels, the genuine friendliness of his disposition, and the unaffected interest which he always manifested in the welfare of his pupils—especially the readiness and fidelity with which he encouraged and assisted any who exhibited special fondness for the studies of his department—will not soon be forgotten by those who enjoyed the benefit of his instructions, and especially by those who were admitted to his closer friendship.

Hitchcock's Geology of the Region Contiguous to the Connecticut River, 1823.

In this same year Edward Hitchcock published in the American Journal of Science a sketch of the geology, mineralogy, and scenery of the regions contiguous to the Connecticut River, the same being accompanied by a colored geological map embracing an area some 30 miles broad by 150 miles in length. The coloring and classification of the rocks were not strictly Wernerian, as might have been expected, but an attempt was made "to give every particular rock that position and extent on the map which it actually occupies on the earth's surface." The paper was devoted mainly to a discussion of the lithological nature and geographic distribution of the various rocks, which were classed as granite, gneiss, hornblende slate, mica slate, talcose slate, chlorite, syenite, primitive green slate, argillite, limestone, verd-antique, old-red sandstone, secondary greenstone, coal formation, and alluvion. Incidentally he discussed their possible origin and relationship.

The granite he described as occurring in beds, and regarded it as primitive, along with the gneiss, mica slate, and the greenstone to the west of New Haven, while that to the north and east was thought to be secondary. The argillite was also regarded as primitive, on the ground of its being highly inclined and destitute of organic remains. The red-brown sandstone now known to be of Triassic age he considered as the old-red sandstone of Werner and Cleaveland, but discussed the possibility of a part of it, as at Chatham and Middletown, belonging to the coal formation.

He chronicled the finding in this sandstone at Deerfield of petrifactions belonging to the genus *phytolite* and to the species *lignite*, and agreeing with the petrifactions found in the Catskill red sandstones by Eaton and referred to "the tribe of Naked Vermes." Fossil bones of

an animal some 5 feet in length were also mentioned as having been found in this sandstone at East Windsor.[a]

The year following Prof. Chester Dewey came forward with a paper in the same journal, A Sketch of the Geology and the Mineralogy of the Western Part of Massachusetts. This was likewise accompanied by a hand-colored geological map designed as a continuation of Hitchcock's and carrying the field of observation as far west as the Hudson River.

Dewey on the Geology of Western Massachusetts, 1824.

Working from the Hudson River eastward, he found a belt of transition argillite succeeded by a broad belt of graywacke with included areas of the argillite; this followed by another continuous belt of the same, and then one of transition limestone and a narrow one of primitive argillaceous slate directly along the border line of New York and Massachusetts. Beyond this, in Massachusetts, a broad belt of primitive limestone with included areas of mica slate, quartz rock, and transition shell and compact limestone, which still farther to the east became the predominant rock, with a narrow area of gneiss, a small one of granite, and one of talcose slate.

The most pretentious piece of fieldwork accomplished by Amos Eaton was that done under the direction of the Hon. Stephen Van Rensselaer in 1824, and comprised a geological and agricultural survey of the district adjoining the Erie Canal. The results of this survey were published in a quarto volume of 163 pages, which was accompanied by a geological section extending from Albany to Lake Erie, and one by Edward Hitchcock from Boston to Plainfield, the two combined enabling Eaton to give a continuous section all the way from Lake Erie to the Atlantic Ocean at Boston Harbor.

Eaton's Survey of the Erie Canal, 1824.

To judge from the introductory remarks in this report, Eaton had been accused of a disposition to create new names. He, therefore, here announced that he had made use of European names, so far as possible, but had found at least five distinct and continuous strata, none of which could, with any propriety, take a name given in any European treatise which had thus far reached this country.

He found along the line of the canal rocks belonging to the primitive, transition, and secondary series. All these were described in considerable detail, but almost wholly with reference to their lithological features. When fossils occurred, such were noted, but were not utilized as aids to correlation.

The prevalent ideas on chemical geology are well brought out in certain parts of his discussion. He recognized the fact that many of the valleys were excavated in the softer and more soluble rocks, like

[a] These bones were at first thought to be possibly human, but the finding of evidences of a tail at least 5 feet in length caused the abandonment of this idea! (American Journal of Science, III, 1821, p. 247.)

limestone, and that carbonic acid holds its base (the lime) with a tenure more feeble than that of the common acids; consequently he argued that when muriatic, sulphuric, or nitric acid comes in contact with limestone, it is immediately decomposed.

> We have vast quantities of muriate of lime in our wells, springs, etc., which is a very soluble salt. If nature has now, or formerly had, any method for presenting large quantities of muriatic acid to the lime rocks, they would of course be reduced to that soluble salt with great rapidity. Lime rocks would be rapidly dissolved, leaving valleys between those rocks which are subject to the ordinary disintegrating agents only. The valleys of Adams, Williamstown, Little Hoosick, etc., which are situated on limestone, could then be satisfactorily explained. If the common opinion that the ocean has stood over our continent be received as true, we have only to add one more conjecture to make out the requisite supply of muriatic acid; that is, we must suppose that the ocean at that time contained an excess of that acid.

In spite of admonitions by Van Rensselaer, Eaton insisted in indulging in a theorizing propensity, although he would not acknowledge it by this name, claiming that he but traced "a few of nature's footsteps where the impressions still remain entire." Finding large and small masses of what he designated as calciferous sandstone, metalliferous limestone, and graywacke, which properly overlie the slate, actually, as he thought, embedded in it, where the rocks were exposed, as at Cohoes Falls, he would argue that these masses fell in between the slate laminæ while the latter were in a semi-indurated state.

Eaton noted the probable difference in age between the red sandstones of the Connecticut Valley and of the Catskill Mountains, which latter he rightly considered to belong to the old-red or Devonian formations. In discussing the Saliferous rock occurring near Little Falls and extending to the west end of Lake Ontario in upper Canada, and its economic importance, he was disposed to argue that the brine springs issuing from the same were what he called "the daily productions of nature's laboratory." "We see," he wrote, "the sulphur in iron pyrites taking oxygen from water, and thereby becoming sulphuric acid; we then see it uniting with magnesia, which is diffused in rocks, and thus forming Epsom salts. * * * We are all familiar, too, with the process of nature by which alum and copperas are made. Why may we not suppose that the two constituents of common salt (muriatic acid and soda) are in some state of combination in the rocks of the salt district, and that by some of those double decompositions with which nature is perfectly familiar salt is produced in the liquid state? May not this be the cause of the superior saltness of the brine springs of Salina over those foreign springs which are supposed to proceed from the solution of rock salt?"

It was in this work that Eaton introduced the name "Calciferous slate" to designate the slaty rock associated with gypsum and shell

limestone occurring as the principal rock forming the ridge south of the land from Oneida Creek to Pittsford.[a]

The naturalist Rafinesque, as might have been expected, did not hesitate to express himself on subjects geological, his ideas, however, being a strange admixture of Wernerism and groundless imagery.

Views of Rafinesque, 1824.

We will note here only his Annals of Kentucky, which appeared in Humphry's history of that State, published in 1824, where, as Doctor Peters has succinctly remarked, "In only 26 duodecimo pages he gives the geological, ethnological, and historical annals of Kentucky from the first day of creation, according to Moses, down to the current year."

The geological history of the State he divided into six periods, the first being that of a general inundation, in which the "briny ocean covers the whole land of Kentucky and the United States, rising above 4,000 feet over the Cumberland or Sawioto Mountains and 5,000 feet over the limestone region near Lexington." The Organ and Mexican mountains alone in all North America rose above the water level.

Through a gradual decrease of the ocean and the decomposition and consolidation of its waters the various rock strata were deposited in the following order: (1) Limestone; (2) slate; (3) sandstone; (4) freestone; (5) grit; (6) pebblestone. These, he stated, were not always superincumbent or coexistent, though generally horizontal except the last four toward the Cumberland Mountains, which, having probably a granitic nucleus, have compelled the incumbent strata to become "obliqual" or inclined from ten to thirty degrees. (In this, it will be noted, he showed an inability, characteristic in his day, to com-

[a] The following reference to this survey appeared in the American Journal of Science, IX, 1825, and will serve to show how Eaton's work was regarded by his contemporaries. The note, it should be stated, was signed C. D. (presumably Chester Dewey):

"Mr. Jeffrey, the principal conductor of the Edinburgh Review, has obtained the opinion of Professor Buckland, the celebrated author of the *Reliquiæ Diluvianæ* (published in 1823), on the above work of Professor Eaton. In a letter to the Hon. S. Van Rensselaer Mr. Jeffrey has given the result. Mr. Buckland says that the 'author seems both to understand his subject and to have done his work carefully.' The work contains, indeed, abundant evidence of extensive and patient examination. This point will not be affected by the adoption or rejection of Mr. Eaton's peculiar views by our geologists. In some parts there is an evident improvement upon some of his previous publications on the geology of our country. Thus, at page 31 and page 62 and onward we find introduced 'primitive argillite,' a rock so clearly separated and so easily distinguished in our country from 'transition argillite,' though both are united under the same name by Bakewell and some others.

"Mr. Buckland makes some objection to the *style*, and complains of Mr. Eaton for 'affecting some needless novelties in technical language.' However true this charge may be, the censure is feeble when compared with the commendation contained in the previous quotation. In our country the work has been censured for this fault, and more particularly for the introduction of rocks or localities which do not belong to the district which is described. In this way unity is not preserved,

prehend the effect of subsequent uplift in tilting rock strata.) By the operation of submarine volcanoes during this period the strata of coal, clay, and amygdaloid were formed and intermixed at various intermittent times with the other strata.

During the second period the Cumberland Mountains emerged from the sea, the waters of which sank to a level of 1,500 feet above those of to-day. The formation of the schistose rocks proceeded, vegetation began, and streams began to flow.

During the third period the level of the water was reduced to 1,100 feet and all the table-lands and highlands of Kentucky became uncovered. An inland sea still covered the Ohio limestone basin, extending from the actual mouth of Sciota River to that of Salt River. Land animals, insects, reptiles, birds, and quadrupeds were created during this period.

During the fourth period the level of the sea was reduced to 700 feet, and the limestone sea of Kentucky drained. Alluviums and bottoms began to form in the valleys and gulfs by the attrition of the strata and soil conveyed and deposited by the streams. Sinks and caves in the limestone region were formed. Lastly, Adam appeared in the Garden of Eden. This fourth period of Kentucky history thereby answered to the sixth day of the general creation.

The fifth period was that of Noah's flood, though Rafinesque acknowledged he failed to find any traces of such a violent convulsion in Kentucky. The ocean, which still bathed its western corner, subsided to about 300 feet above its present level and abandoned Ken-

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and the continuity of the description is much interrupted. We do not object to this in that part of the work entitled 'General Descriptions of North American Rocks,' though some have said that these can hardly belong, in a general view, to the district of the canal. But in the 'Description of rocks in the vicinity of the Erie Canal,' page 47, the fault often occurs. We mention the account of the hornblende rocks near West Point, page 54; of granular quartz, pages 56, 57; of granular limestone, pages 57, 58, and many others which are not found near the line of the canal.

"If the work should pass to a second edition, which is highly probable, and even rendered somewhat necessary to make it as complete as the subsequent examinations of Professor Eaton enable him to do, and as the light thrown on the subject of the newer formations by the very able work of Conybeare and Phillips on the Geology of England and Wales seems to require, we would suggest as an *improvement* of the work that the notices of rocks which are not found along the line of the canal be omitted in this part of the work, or be reduced to the bare remark that they do not occur in the district, and that the remarks and localities of rocks in other parts of the country be taken from the text and put into form of notes. In this way the continuity of geological description of the country along the canal will be unbroken. We think no one can read the work without being sensible of its interest and importance to every one who examines the rocks of this district. The localities are given with much precision, and the traveler is enabled at once to ascertain the rocks intended by the names which Professor E. has given them. It were to be wished that the common nomenclature of the rocks had been altered with a more sparing hand."

tucky forever. Strata began to consolidate, ponds and marshes decreased, animals multiplied, and vegetation overspread the soil.

The sixth period, that of Peleg's flood, was one of catastrophe. Great volcanic eruptions in Europe and America, with awful earthquakes convulsed the Atlantic Ocean. During this period the Atlantic land disappeared leaving only the volcanic islands—Azores, Madeira, Canary, and Cape Verde—to mark its position.

Dobson's Observation on the Drift, 1825.

It will be remembered that in 1793 Benjamin De Witt noted the great diversity among the bowlders along the shore of Lake Ontario and recognized the fact that such must have been conveyed there by some extraordinary means. The means conceived of by De Witt were indeed extraordinary and nothing less than a "mighty convulsion of nature." Peter Dobson, a Connecticut cotton manufacturer, writing thirty-two years later, showed himself a better observer and more gifted in powers of deduction.

In a letter to Benjamin Silliman, dated November 21, 1825,[a] Dobson described bowlders which were unearthed at Vernon, Connecticut, while excavating preliminary to the erection of a cotton factory, as "worn smooth on their under side as if done by their having been dragged over rocks and gravelly earth in one steady position." They also showed scratches and furrows on the abraded parts. He could account for these appearances only by calling in the aid of ice along with water, the blocks having been worn by being suspended and carried in ice over rocks and earth under water.

These observations seem to have attracted no attention at the time, and even Edward Hitchcock, thirteen years later, attached no serious importance to them, although his attention was called to the matter by another letter from Dobson, this time addressed to Hitchcock himself. In this second letter, written in 1838, Dobson described the bowlders as having been first rounded by attrition and then worn flat on one side by a motion that kept them in one relative position, as a plane slides over a board in the act of planing. Some of them he describes as worn and scratched so plainly that there was no difficulty in pointing out which side was foremost in the act of wearing, a projecting bit of quartz or feldspar protecting the softer material behind it. In this letter he again announced his inability to account for these appearances except on the supposition that the boulders had been enveloped in ice and moved forward over the sea bottom by currents of water. The drifting icebergs off the Labrador coast he thought might well illustrate the conditions and methods of their production.

Perhaps it may have been because Dobson was a cotton manufacturer and not a member of the learned profession, or there may have

[a] This may be found in American Journal of Science, X, 1826.

been other reasons for it, but Hitchcock allowed the observations to pass unnoticed until 1842 when the subject was brought up by no less an authority than Murchison, in his anniversary address before the Geological Society of London. "I take leave of the glacial theory," said Murchison, "in congratulating American science in having possessed the original author of the best glacial theory, though his name has escaped notice, and in recommending to you the terse argument of Peter Dobson, a previous acquaintance with which might have saved volumes of disputation on both sides of the Atlantic."[a] Supported by this somewhat enthusiastic indorsement, Hitchcock then gave the letter to the public through the American Journal of Science,[b] though at the same time remarking that he had himself derived his ideas concerning the joint action of ice and water from the writings of Sir James Hall.

The Long-Keating Expedition, 1823-1825.

April 25, 1823, Maj. S. H. Long received orders from the War Department to make an expedition for a general survey of the country in the vicinity of the Great Lakes and the sources of the Mississippi; to prepare a topographic description of the same; to ascertain the latitude and longitude of all the remarkable points; to investigate its productions, animal, vegetable, and mineral, and to inquire into the characteristics and customs of the Indians. The route of the expedition (see map, fig. 16) beginning at Philadelphia, was through Wheeling, West Virginia, to Chicago by way of Fort Wayne; thence to Fort Crawford and up the Mississippi to Fort St. Anthony, and the source of the St. Peters River; thence to the point of intersection between Red River and the forty-ninth degree of north latitude; along the northern boundary of the United States to Lake Superior, and thence homeward by the Great Lakes.

Although not intended primarily as a scientific survey, it was accompanied by Thomas Say, zoologist, and William H. Keating, mineralogist. It was expected that Dr. Edwin James, who with Say had been a member of the expedition of 1819-20, would be a member of this also, but through failure to connect with the party at Wheeling or Columbus the expedition was deprived of his services.

An account of this survey, under the title of Narrative of an Expedition to the Sources of St. Peters River, etc., was prepared by William H. Keating and published in two volumes in London in 1825. Keating, it should be noted, was professor of mineralogy and chemistry as applied to the arts in the University of Pennsylvania, and though his published notes contain little or nothing along the broad lines of geology, they are full of references which, at the time they were written, were of value.

[a] Anniversary address, Proceedings of the Geological Society of London, 1842.
[b] Volume XLVI, 1844.

He remarked on the disappearance of the primitive rocks soon after leaving Philadelphia and the appearance of the transition limestone,

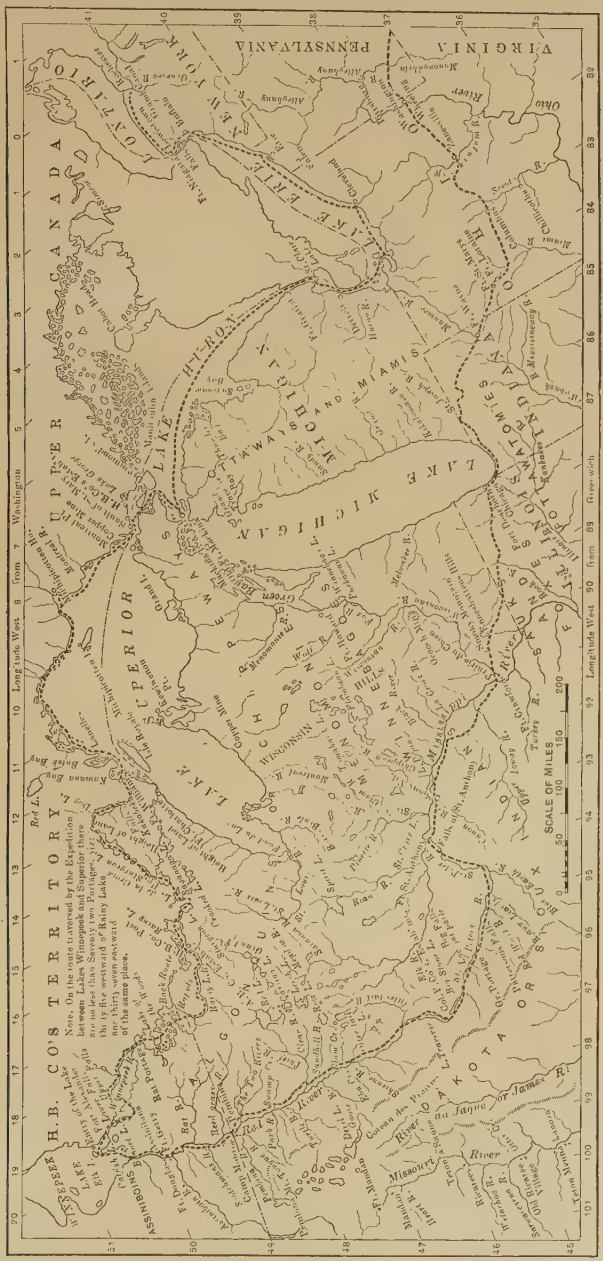


FIG. 16.—Map showing Routes of Long's Expedition of 1823.

with occasional protrusions through this limestone of amphibolite. He also made reference to the red sandstone of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Maryland and the calcareous breccia found on the Potomac

River. The occurrence of a white marble near Hagerstown and a secondary blue limestone in the vicinity of Cumberland was noted, and some attention given to the coal formations in the vicinity of Cumberland and Wheeling. He noted further the occurrence of a limestone containing organic remains lying in a nearly horizontal position in the vicinity of Chicago, but no superposition being visible, he was unable to determine its relative age.

Concerning the lead ores at Dubuque, and their apparent occurrence only in the alluvial soil, he wrote:

> From the specimens which we have seen, * * * we can not hesitate in asserting it as our opinion that no lead has yet been discovered on the Merrimeg or Mississippi in metalliferous limestones, but that wherever it has been found it has always been in an alluvium and never in regular veins or beds, nor even in masses which might be considered as coeval with the substances in which they are embedded.

The Cambrian sandstone found between the Wassemon and the Wisconsin rivers he regarded as not older than the variegated or *Bunter sandstein* of Werner (Triassic), and the Lower Silurian limestone which lies above the sandstone, as corresponding to the English Lias. The whole region comprising the headwaters of the Winnipeek River was looked upon as having been at a comparatively recent period an immense lake interspersed with innumerable barren, rocky islands, which had been drained by the bursting of the barriers which tided back the waters. The innumerable bowlders which he found covering the valley were regarded, as were similar bowlders in other places by his contemporaries, as due to the flood of waters caused by the bursting of these natural dams.

This was plainly a recognition of the extinct glacial Lake Agassiz, later described by Lieut. G. K. Warren,[a] and the history of which was worked out in detail by Warren Upham.

Keating's ideas as to the possible development of the mining industry were not of the most advanced type. Referring to the subject of the supposed source of the native copper reported by Schoolcraft (p. 244), he wrote:

> The question which appears to us of far greater importance is not where the copper lies, but what shall we do with it if it should be found. We are very doubtful whether any other advantage would result from it, at least for a century to come, than the mere addition in books of science of a new locality of this metal.

This in 1825! The development of the Michigan copper mines began about 1855, and up to 1889 the combined mines had produced over 1,000,000,000 pounds of the refined metal. The output for 1889 alone amounted to 87,455,675 pounds.

In a Notice of Snake Hill and Saratoga Lake and its Environs, by Dr. J. H. Steel, in the American Journal of Science for this same

[a] American Journal of Science, XVI, 1878, p. 417.

year, is figured and described what is evidently an overturned fold. This is of interest, since while the nature of the fold was partially realized, the means by which it was brought about was considered as problematical. Similar phenomena had been noted by Eaton (p. 253) and by Maclure, but with nothing like as much detail. The writer says:

J. H. Steel on Overturned Folds. 1825.

It is impossible to examine this locality without being strongly impressed with the belief that the position which the strata here assume could not have been effected in any other way than by a power operating from beneath upward and at the same time possessing a progressive force, something analogous to what takes place in the breaking up of the ice of large rivers. The continued swelling of the stream first overcomes the resistance of its frozen surface, and having elevated it to a certain extent, it is forced into a vertical position, or thrown over upon the unbroken stratum behind, by the progressive power of the current.

If it can be admitted that the operation of such a power did produce the effect here represented, it must have taken place before the materials of which the formation is composed had passed into an indurated state, as most of the strata remain unbroken, and, where the argillite has crumbled away, the curved part of the graywacke may be taken out entire, and some of them, which I now have in my possession, exhibit indentations and protuberances, particularly on their curved surfaces, evidently the result of friction while in a plastic state.

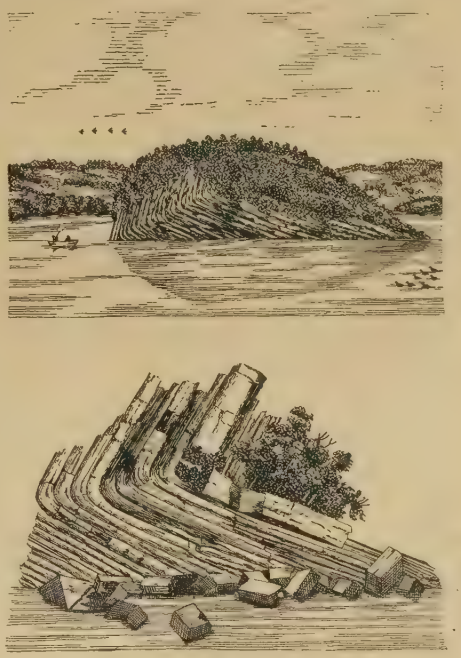


FIG. 17.—Sections of Snake Hill, Saratoga Lake. (After J. H. Steel.)

The description is of still further interest historically, when considered in connection with the dispute relating to priority of discovery which later arose between Messrs. Hitchcock and Rogers. (See p. 314.)

The fact that rock strata were not always found lying even approximately horizontal had been often noted, but no rational explanation suggested or, indeed, attempted. In that year, however, Maclure, in noting the fact that the Transition rocks dip, suggested the possibility of its being caused by their having been "disposed on the primitive, concerning which we can as yet scarce conjecture anything."

Inclined Strata and Overturned Folds. 1825.

The appearance in book form of Prof. Jeremiah Van Rensselaer's lectures on geology, as delivered before the New York Athenæum in 1825, gives us an opportunity of judging of the condition of science at that date, such as was offered a few years earlier by Mitchill's Observations.

Van Rensselaer's Lectures on Geology, 1825.

Van Rensselaer was not so much an original investigator as a student and teacher; hence the inference is fair that his work gives us a summary of existing knowledge rather than the details of his own observations or his individual views. He reviewed the opinions of the cosmogonists and theorists from Burnett, in 1680, down to Werner and Hutton, and referred to the work of his predecessors and contemporaries in America, summing up with conclusions condensed from Cuvier's Observations, to the effect that, first, the sea had, at one period or other, not only covered all our plains, but remained there for a long time in a state of tranquillity; second, that there had been at least one change in the basin of the sea which preceded the present one; third, that the particular portions of the earth which the sea had abandoned by its last retreat had been laid dry once before and had at that time produced quadrupeds, birds, plants, and all kinds of terrestrial productions; and that it had been reinundated by the sea, which had since retired and left it to the possession of its own proper inhabitants. These facts, which had been proven through geological evidence, he regarded as supporting the accounts of Moses, both agreeing, first, in the prevalence over everything else of water at the time of the creation; second, in the subsequent separation of the land from the water; and, third, in the eruption of the sea over the continent, the last corresponding to the Noachian deluge.

Van Rensselaer recognized the value of fossils in proving the identity of geological horizons, also the fact that organic remains have been deposited in successive generations and in such order that those of one bed bear a certain connection to each other and exhibit certain distinctive points differentiating them from those of earlier or later deposits, and that the greater the distance between the deposits the greater the difference between the contained fossils. This, I believe, is the second recognition by an American author of a now well-established principle.

The tendency to make sweeping generalizations founded upon purely local observations is noticeable in his writings, as in those of many of his contemporaries. Thus, in describing the gneiss:

> It is the next rock to granite and occurs resting or lying upon it. When they are both seen in the same mountain its ledge is always the lower of the two. Mountains of gneiss are seldom so steep as those of granite, and the summits are not quite so peaked.

Or, again, in writing on the weathering of rocks:

The decomposition of granite is slow and when decomposed the unfriendly siliceous grains are easily washed away. There is neither vegetable nor animal matter in the compound; it does not absorb moisture, letting the moisture percolate, nor does it retain heat. The soil made from gneiss is not washed away so easily, and the mica yields more argillaceous matter. * * * Micaceous schist and argillite decompose more rapidly and form a better, though not a good, soil. * * * The rivers of primary districts have rocky beds and precipitous banks, etc.

Van Rensselaer was one of the first to recognize the necessity of exercising care in the selection of stones for building purposes:

We take our materials because they are near at hand, because they are cheap, and because others have taken the same, in preference to searching out others which * * * are more durable. Scarcely any one building in Europe or America of modern construction at the end of one thousand years will have one stone left upon another stone to denote the place where it stood, and the most splendid works of modern architecture are even now hastening to decay from want of attention to this subject.

His remarks on anthracite coal offer an interesting illustration of a disposition, still too frequently met with, to make the observed facts conform to preconceived opinions. Anthracite or native mineral carbon, or "blind coal," he wrote, is not regarded, strictly speaking, as a coal, though combustible.

It occurs in the primary rocks, and hence it is obvious that it did not proceed from the decomposition of vegetable substances, since it is generally acknowledged that the primary rocks were formed previous to the existence of vegetation.

An analytical key or a synopsis, given with a view of facilitating the study of geology, is of particular interest, since the methods of modern petrography have shown how absolutely impossible it is to classify rocks by a simple examination of the hand specimen and without the aid of a microscope. It is difficult to imagine a student in other than a thorough state of mental demoralization who should attempt to identify and classify rocks from such a description, an abstract of which is given below:

SYNOPSIS OF THE OVERLYING OR SUPERINCUMBENT ROCKS.

FIRST DIVISION.

Simple, or apparently so.

A. Wacke, of the German school. Resembles indurated clay, with an even and smooth earthy, or an uneven, somewhat granular fracture, and a shining streak.

a. Compact.

b. Cellular; but generally in that case partly amygdaloidal and appertaining to another division.

B. Indurated clay, more or less hard, with an earthy and dull fracture.

a. Compact.

This is different from the ferruginous clays found often with the trap rocks, which pass into jasper.

b. Cellular.

Like var. A, *b*, it is rarely cellular in large masses without also containing amygdaloidal nodules, when it passes to another division. The colors of this variety are usually ash or gray of different hues, or modifications of red, or brown, or purplish black.

The prevalent ideas on the subject of earthquakes at this time may be gleaned from a paper by Dr. Isaac Lea, of Philadelphia, in the American Journal of Science for 1825. Lea rejected the theories put forward in 1749 by a Doctor Stukley to the effect that earthquakes were caused by lightning, but regarded them as the effect of volcanic eruptions, though at the same time he could see no necessary connection between the electric discharges of volcanoes and the earthquakes, regarding such as an effect rather than a cause.

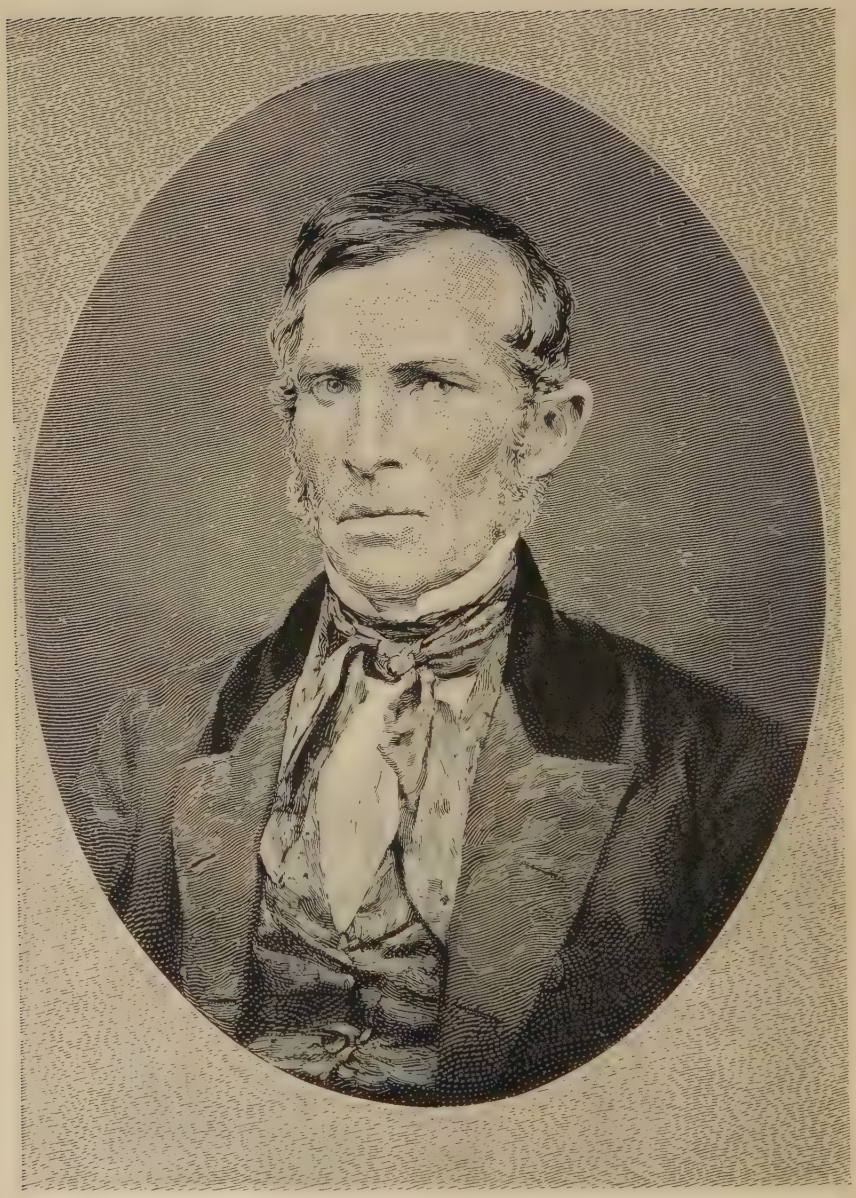
Isaac Lea on Earthquakes, 1825.

He thought that there were strong reasons for believing a considerable portion of the interior of the earth to be in a constant state of incandescence and that there were beneath the surface great cavities or channels of connection between one volcano and another. "We must admit," he wrote, "of deep-seated channels of connection stretching from one portion of the globe to the others, through which the explosive gases pass with an instantaneous motion, accompanied by a rumbling or terrible noise peculiar to earthquakes." In this, it will be noted, he followed to a large extent the teachings of Humboldt and Newton. These channels, he thought, had connection with the sea, basing his opinion upon the fact that volcanoes throw up salt water and fish; moreover, that most volcanoes are situated near the sea. He regarded these branching channels as species of horizontal volcanoes, their roofs and walls furnishing material which, aided by oxygen supplied by the influx of the sea, would yield the necessary amount of combustible matter to keep up the earth's internal fire. To the possible objection that rocks in themselves would not burn, he answered that, when such are decomposed, "their metallic bases, calcium, silicium, aluminum, magnesium, etc., are highly incandescent."

Four years later (1829) Maclure, in discussing the theories of Poulett Scrope, took exception to the views of Lea, though he failed to offer anything satisfactory in return. He instanced the earthquake of 1811–12 in the Mississippi Valley, in which only the alluvial formations had been disturbed, and questioned if such could not have been caused by the evolution of elastic gases arising from the fermentation of large masses of vegetable matter accumulated in the beds. If such were the case, however, he recognized the possibility of an increase in the frequency of earthquakes as fermentation went on. Maclure evidently did not place a great amount of reliance on his own theories, for he states, in referring to some of the ideas advanced by Scrope:[a] "All these speculations are

Maclure's Criticisms of Scrope and Lea, 1829.

[a] Scrope's Theory of Volcanoes appeared in 1825.



EBENEZER EMMONS.

State Geologist of North Carolina.

out of the reach of our senses and can be accounted only as amusement" for the present.

In 1826 there appeared a Manual of Mineralogy and Geology, designed for the use of schools and for persons attending lectures on these subjects, as also a convenient pocket companion for travelers in the United States of America, the same being from the pen of Dr. Ebenezer Emmons, destined later to act a very important part in American geological history, but at that time newly graduated from the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, New York.

Emmons's Manual of Mineralogy and Geology, 1826.

Emmons at first studied, and later practiced, medicine, but in 1828 removed to Williamstown, where he had been appointed lecturer on chemistry. During the years 1830–1837 he also served as junior professor in the Rensselaer Institute, and in 1836 was appointed one of the four geologists of the New York State survey. In 1842 he became custodian of the State collections at Albany, and in 1843 engaged in investigations relating to the agricultural resources of the State, the results of which were published during the period 1846–1854 in the form of five quarto volumes. In 1851 he was appointed State geologist of North Carolina, a position which he retained until the time of his death.

As noted elsewhere, Emmons, during his work on the New York State survey, became involved in a discussion relative to the so-called "Taconic System," which lasted for nearly half a century and which undoubtedly seriously embittered the latter days of his life. The dispute, indeed, became at times so harsh that Emmons was practically ostracized by the scientific fraternity.

In 1851 he published a pretentious volume on North American geology, and, in connection with his work in North Carolina, two volumes on the agriculture and geology of the State. He died during the period of the civil war, and his papers and notes are said to have become lost in the unsettled condition of the country which followed.

It is impossible here to go into a discussion of the true merits of the Taconic controversy, and the matter is reserved for a separate chapter. Hundreds of pages of printed matter have been published, covering a period of nearly fifty years, but the name has now disappeared from the maps and is only of historical interest.

Emmons's Manual, to which reference is above made, and which, as stated in the title page, was adopted as a text-book at the Rensselaer school at Troy, was a small duodecimo volume of 230 pages. It had the distinction, so far as the mineralogical part was concerned, of being the second treatise of its kind written by an American and for American students, being preceded only by Cleaveland's Mineralogy, published in 1816. In geology it was preceded by the works of Cleaveland in 1816 and Eaton in 1818.

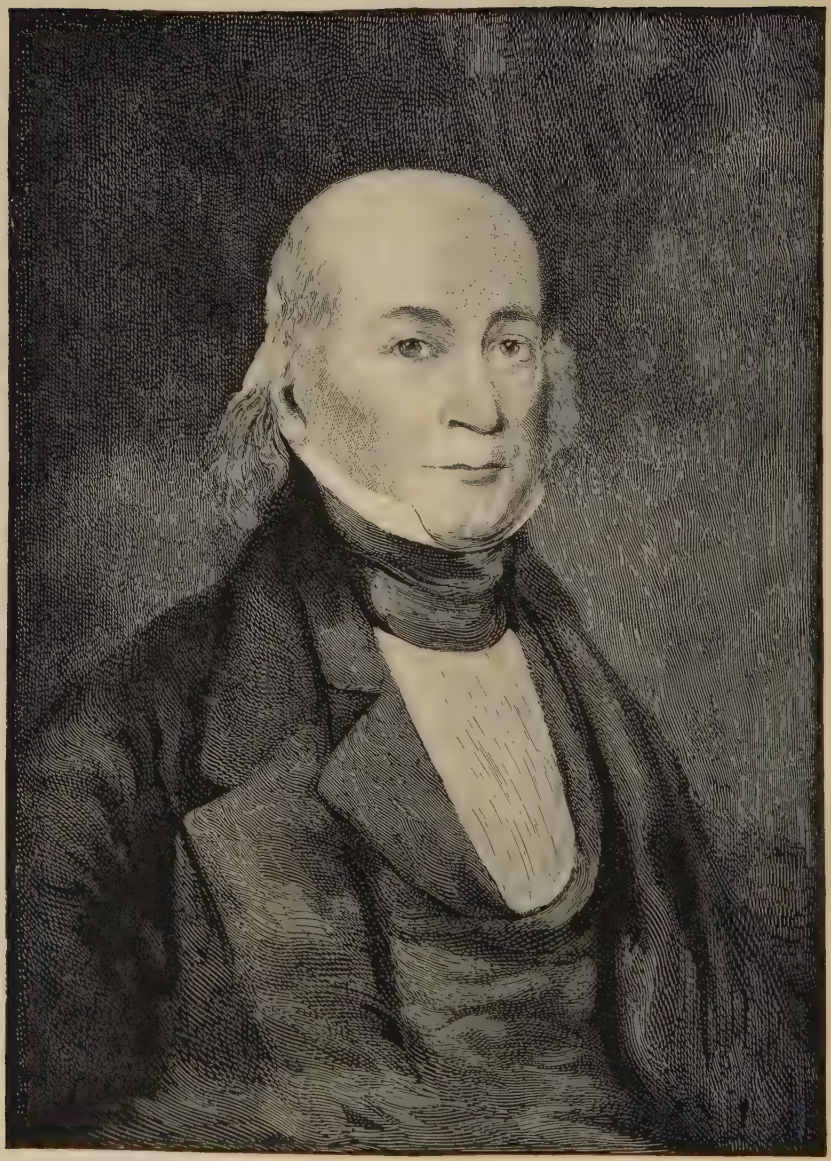
In Emmons's work the minerals were all included in four classes, with an appendix which contained those minerals of which but little is known. The classes were subdivided, as Cleaveland and others had done before him, into orders, the orders again into genera, and the genera finally into species. His arrangement of classes was, however, somewhat different from any of his predecessors. Thus, the first class included those minerals, not metallic, which are oxidable or which are compounds whose bases are oxidable. It comprised native gases and liquids, sulphur and carbon, and the carbon compounds, but, singularly enough, no mention was made of graphite.

The second class included all minerals which are metallic or whose bases are metallic; the third class all those which consist of an alkaline or earthy base in combination with acids, and the fourth those which consist of an earth or are compounds of earths with variable portions of alkaline and metallic oxides. In the seven sections into which this last class was divided he placed quartz in all its varieties, siliceous slate, pumice, obsidian, clinkstone, a large number of hydrous and anhydrous silicates, argillite, wacke, clay, phosphates, etc. But little attention was given to crystallography, and "silex, alumnie, and lime are considered as the oldest of the earths, as they enter into the composition of the primitive rocks." Altogether 297 species were recognized, 44 of which were mentioned in the appendix as little known. Many of these, such as pumice, obsidian, wacke, etc., can not, of course, be properly considered as minerals. In spite of this unintentional exaggeration, it is interesting, for purposes of comparison, to note that in the latest edition of Dana's Mineralogy (1892) 824 species were recognized.

The part of Emmons's work devoted to geology was made up mainly of a "general description of North American rocks." The classification adopted was the same as that used by Eaton and need not be noted here further than to say that he included an argillite among his primitive as well as transition rocks, while Eaton limited argillite to the transition series, though recognizing the possibility of a primitive form.

Among the early workers in stratigraphic geology, along lines laid down by Cuvier, Brongniart, and their successors, mention must be made of Gerard Troost, born in Holland in 1776 and dying in Nashville, Tennessee, in 1850. Like many naturalists of his time Troost was a physician. He studied in France; was appointed by the King of Holland to accompany, in a scientific capacity, a naval expedition to Japan. He was captured and imprisoned by English privateers, finally returning to Paris. He thence took passage for New York in an American vessel and was again captured, this time by a French privateer, and once more imprisoned. On his release he went again to Paris, was again allowed to embark, and in 1810 came to Philadelphia.

Troost and His Work, 1826.



GERARD TROOST.

State Geologist of Tennessee.

When the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences was established in 1812 he became its first president, holding the office for five years, when he was succeeded by William Maclure. Troost, with Owen, Maclure, and others, joined the communistic society at New Harmony, Indiana, in 1825, but removed to Nashville, Tennessee, in 1827, and the following year was elected professor of chemistry, geology, and mineralogy in the university of that city. In 1831 he became State geologist, holding the office till 1839, when it was abolished. Nine reports were made during his time, but seven of which were published. Prior to going to Tennesseee his most important geological work was a survey of the region about Philadelphia, the same being done and the results published in 1826 under the patronage of the Society for the Promotion of Agriculture.

The work comprised forty small octavo pages with a colored map of the region included within a half circle north of the Delaware River, having a radius extending a little beyond Chester, i. e., some 17½ miles. As may be readily supposed, fully three-fourths the area was colored as gneiss, with narrower bands extending in a general way parallel with the river; in the northern part, of primitive clay-slate and of limestone. Between the gneiss and clay-slate was a short, narrow belt of serpentine, and between the clay-slate and limestone one of eurite, and in the extreme northeastern portion of the sheet a band of transition graywacke. Among the varieties of rocks mentioned, in addition to those enumerated and comprising subordinate formations, are diabase and pegmatite. The eurite was described as occurring north of the high ridge which separates the limestone from the granitic rocks and as being in every respect similar to that of Penig, on the Erzgebirge. "I was delighted," he wrote, "at meeting this rock for the first time on this side of the Atlantic. I imagined myself transported to the Erzgebirge, in Saxony, and remembered with renewed pleasure the father of geology, who made us acquainted with it." More than half of the paper was given up to a discussion of the physical and chemical properties of the soil, as might be expected when its date and the auspices under which the work was done are taken into consideration.

In the Boston Journal of Philosophy for the same year the ill-starred Prof. J. W. Webster gave a somewhat detailed account of the geology of Boston and vicinity, describing the three hills, to which "Boston owes its ancient name and so much of its picturesque beauty," as being composed mainly of hard, compact clay with gravel and bowlders. Amister's Hill was described as composed largely of clay-slate, passing on the north into hornblende slate, the latter containing veins of "greenstone;" and Prospect Hill, in part of a greenish compact feldspar, which passes into clay-slate, covered toward its northwest extremity by a mass

Webster's Account of the Geology about Boston, 1826.

of trap. "This hill," he wrote, "exhibits that gentle acclivity and rounded summit so common in the transition formations of the Wernerian school."

The Medford trap (diabase) he noted as being unfit for architectural purposes, owing to its rapid disintegration, a fact which has been many times commented upon in more recent years. The tendency manifested by the "greenstone" as a whole to exfoliate in bowlder forms with concentric structure, he correctly ascribed to weathering, as did Gibson writing several years earlier (p. 254).

He noted the occurrence of abundant joints in the conglomerate of Dorchester, but considered such as inexplicable with the geological information then available. An interesting light is thrown upon the lack of knowledge of the chemical composition of rocks at that time in the continuation of his paper the following year, in which he described this conglomerate—a highly siliceous rock—as passing into the overlying melaphyr, a basic igneous rock. In several places within the town of Brighton he thought to note the transition from one rock type to another.[a]

Alanson Nash on Vein Formation, 1827.

In the American Journal of Science for 1827 Alanson Nash presented his first, last, and only geological paper that seems to have found its way into print—this relating to the lead mines and veins of Hampshire County, Massachusetts—and offered some interesting speculations as to their origin.

That they were not once open fissures filled from above, the fissures themselves being formed by the unequal subsidence of the earth's crust or through shrinkage caused by desiccation, according to the Neptunian theory, was to him evident for the following reasons: If the cavities were formed by desiccation and subsidence the veins would be widest at the surface and narrow as they descend, whereas, in fact, the very reverse is the case. If filled from above by mineral solutions which covered the globe, then he thought we ought to find beds of metallic matter in the valleys and plains also. Neither was he disposed to accept the views of the Plutonists, who regarded the veins as filled by "an injection from a fiery furnace below." Rather would he look upon them as contemporaneous both in formation and filling with the rocks in which they occur, being analogous to the granite veins of the same region. That the vein material did not adhere firmly to the wall rock, as is the case with the granite veins,

[a] This deceptive appearance, it may be stated, is due to the fact that the melaphyr at the time of its extrusion was in a highly liquid condition and flowing out over the uneven surface of the conglomerate filled in all the inequalities, so closely welding itself as to form what was apparently one and the same mass. When subsequent erosion cut away a considerable portion of both rocks the appearance of isolated patches of melaphyr here and there on the eroded surface of the conglomerate was quite misleading. Some more recent observers have since committed the same blunder of observation and faulty deduction with far less excuse.

was to him no argument against this view. "In one case the vein is lapideous, in the other it is metallic; they are different."

As has been already noted, Olmsted's work in North Carolina was continued after his resignation by Prof. Elisha Mitchell, who was transferred from the chair of mathematics to that of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology at the time of Olmsted's resignation.

Elisha Mitchell's Work, 1827–28.

Like Olmsted, Mitchell was born in Connecticut and graduated at Yale, going to North Carolina about the same time as did the former. He was known as a man of great culture and erudition, but had manifested no indications of a particular leaning toward geology until the transfer above noted, and to-day his fame probably rests more upon his knowledge of the physical geography and botany of North Carolina than of its geology. He was an enthusiastic explorer and collector, and, as is well known, finally lost his life on Black, now Mitchell, Mountain in 1857.

FIG. 18.—Elisha Mitchell.

His two most important papers on geology were published in 1828 and 1829, the first relating to the origin of the low country of North Carolina and the second to the geology of the gold regions. In 1842 he published a summary of his work in the form of a text-book for his classes, accompanied by a small geological map of the State, the only map of its kind thus far prepared. A report on the mineralogy of the State was also prepared by his assistant, C. E. Rothe, of Saxony, in 1827. A geological map of the eastern half of the State was said to have been made, but never published.

Mitchell, in his paper on the origin of the low country, took the ground that the various strata there found were formed in the bed of the sea and became dry land through the depression of the level of the ocean or the elevation of the land by a force operating from beneath. The shells found by him in these beds proved, in his judgment, that they were of comparatively recent origin, but just how recent he was not prepared to say. The presence of bones of elephants and mastodons, however, indicated to his mind an elevation prior to the Noachian deluge, to which catastrophe he evidently attributed their burial.

In 1829 Mitchell published in the American Journal of Science an article in which he threw doubt upon the statements and theories of Olmsted and Rothe regarding the origin and occurrence of gold in the State. It will be remembered that Olmsted considered the gold to be limited to the area occupied by the argillite, while Rothe considered granite as the base of the gold-bearing formations. Olmsted further argued that the gold occurred in the diluvial formation, while Rothe believed that the gold now found in the alluvial was derived from veins and spread over the country by a flood of waters breaking through the Blue Ridge and rushing in torrents over the entire gold-bearing region.[a]

Mitchell's Criticism of Olmsted and Rothe, 1829.

Mitchell's idea, which is undoubtedly the correct one, was that the gold occurred originally in veins and perhaps in part disseminated throughout the country rock, which was in itself in part primitive and in part secondary. From these rocks it was set free through atmospheric decomposition and subsequently distributed by gravity and running water.

Mitchell's paper is of further interest in that it contains a colored geological map of the gold region, the rocks being classified as primitive, transition or slate, old-red sandstone, and alluvium.

Although the day of the cosmogonist was fast drifting into the obscurity of the past, there were, nevertheless, occasional writers who still preferred to ignore facts of observation or the efficiency of simple causes and to seek for more difficult or more mystical methods of accounting for phenomena than those furnished by the observation of processes now in action. Thus Benjamin Tappan, in discussing the bowlders of primitive and transition rock found in Ohio (glacial erratics), objected to the commonly accepted idea that such were necessarily foreign to the locality, brought by currents of water or floating ice in immense inland lakes. He frankly acknowledged, however, his own inability to account for their presence, but ingenuously claimed that "ignorance is preferable to error," and added: "It may therefore be asked why may not these rocks have been created where they are now found?" Or, "Again, why may they not have been thrown out by earthquakes or volcanoes?"

Tappan's Ideas on the Drift, 1828.

Groping though this writer may have been, it is questionable if his ignorance were not preferable to the kind of knowledge manifested by a writer (signature "A") in the American Journal of Science of two years previous, who would account for the drift on the supposition that the earth's revolution, amounting to 1,500 feet a second, was suddenly checked. This, he thought, would result in the whole mass

[a] Rothe had previously (1826) expressed the idea that the gold was derived from the bursting asunder of the gold-bearing veins by subterranean explosions and the gold thus scattered over the adjacent regions, some of it being carried down in the water courses.

of the surface water rushing forward with inconceivable velocity, until overcome by opposing obstacles or exhausted by continual friction and the counterbalancing power of gravitation. The Pacific Ocean would thus rush over the Andes and the Alleghenies into the Atlantic, which would in the meantime be sweeping over Europe, Asia, and Africa. "A few hours would cover the entire surface of the earth, excepting, perhaps, the vicinity of the poles, with one rushing torrent, in which the fragments of disintegrated rock, earth, and sand would be carried along with the wreck of animal and vegetable life in one all but liquid mass."

The Dark Ages of Geology.

The period that may with propriety be called the dark age of geology was that prior to the discovery and general recognition of the value of fossils in stratigraphy—the fact that the relative age or stratigraphic sequence of sedimentary rocks could be determined by means of the plant and animal remains they may contain.

According to Dr. Archibald Geikie, in his Founders of Geology, credit must be given to the Abbé Giraud-Soulavie for having first planted the seeds of stratigraphic geology. In a paper read before the Royal Academy of Scientists in Paris in August, 1779, Soulavie described the calcareous mountains Vivarais as made up of limestones belonging to five different epochs, the strata in each being marked by its own peculiar assemblage of fossils.

These views, though undoubtedly correct in the main, were not generally accepted even in France, a fact thought by Doctor Geikie to be due mainly to the wretched style in which they were set forth, and the Abbé's fame has been eclipsed by more brilliant successors, among whom may be mentioned Desmarest, Rouelle, Lamanon, Cuvier, and Brongniart.

Cuvier, it will be recalled, was primarily a biologist, and may well be considered the first vertebrate paleontologist—the first to announce that the globe was once peopled by vertebrate animals of a type which have long since disappeared. In connection with Brongniart, Cuvier published in 1808 a memoir containing the results of their joint studies in the basin of the Seine. They showed that the formations there existing were arranged in a definite order and could be recognized by their lithological and paleontological characteristics. Although subsequent research has naturally tended to show that the observations and deductions of these early workers were not in all cases correct, it may, nevertheless, be said that they established on a basis of accurate observation the principles of paleontological stratigraphy, demonstrated the use of fossils for the determination of geological chronology, and paved the way for the enormous advances which have since been made.

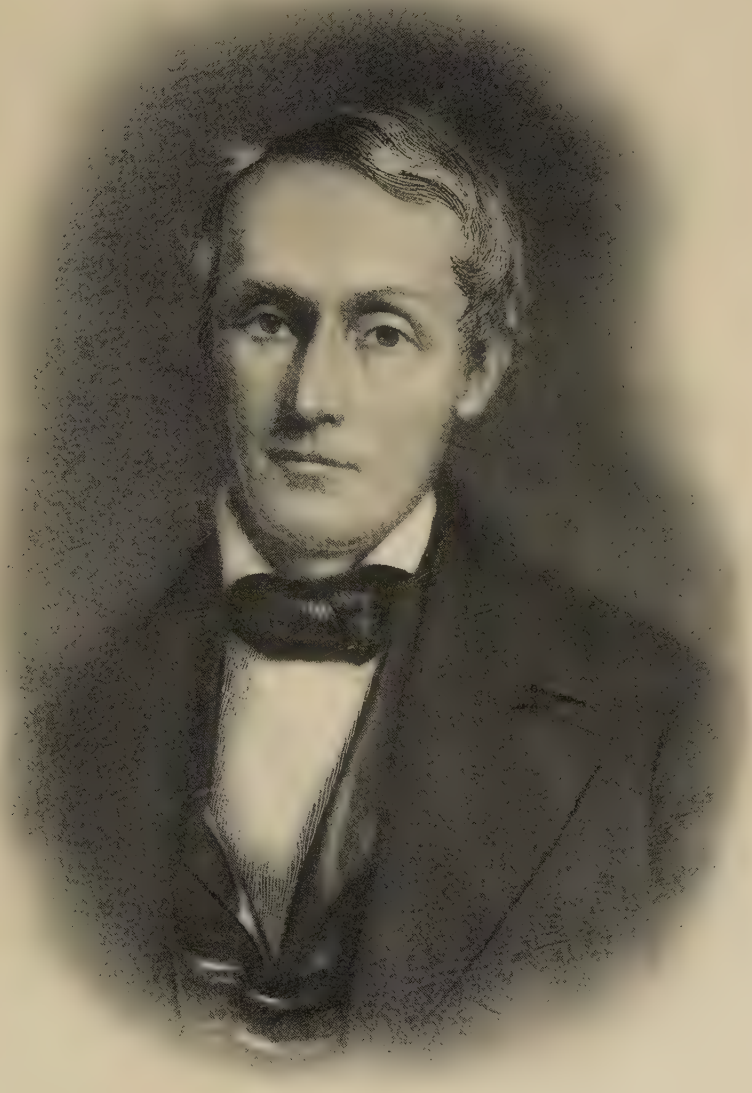
When one recalls the avidity with which each new suggestion is seized upon by the scientists of to-day, it seems strange that so promising a field of investigation as was here thrown open should not have been immediately occupied. Nevertheless, it was not until 1828 that an American geologist took up the matter with an apparently full appreciation of its possibilities. In that year Dr. S. G. Morton, the paleontologist, read before the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences, from notes furnished him by Lardner Vanuxem, what was probably the most important paper of the year, relating to a possible subdivision of the heretofore so-called alluvial or Tertiary deposits of the Atlantic coast. The most important feature of this paper, as may be surmised, lay in its announced recognition of the value of fossils for purposes of correlation. With the exception of Prof. John Finch, already mentioned, writers up to this time had very generally referred to these deposits as belonging to a single formation, either alluvial or Tertiary, as the case might be. Vanuxem here asserted for the first time the existence of both Secondary and Tertiary formations, and showed "that the two formations may be at all times unequivocally identified by their fossil remains." The relative geological position of the beds he gave as below:

First Attempt at Correlation, 1828.

Modern alluvial	Vegetable mold	7
	River alluvium	6
Ancient alluvial	White siliceous sand	5
	Red earth	4
Tertiary	Beds of Ostreae	3
	Mass of limestone, buhrstone, sand, and clay	
Secondary	Lignite	2
	Marl of New Jersey	1

In 1828 Dr. C. T. Jackson, of Boston, in company with Francis Alger, published in the American Journal of Science a series of papers bearing on the mineralogy and geology of a part of Nova Scotia. These, although mainly of a mineralogical nature, contained much material which at the time was valuable, and were accompanied by a colored geological maps This showed the distribution of the various geological formation. (identified mainly on lithological grounds) of the northern half of the peninsula. A broad belt of transition clay-slate was represented as extending from the Gut of Canso to St. Marys Bay. This was bordered on the northeast by a narrow bed of alluvium, the immediate border of the Bay of Fundy being occupied by trap rock or *greenstone*, as it was then called. A wide band of red and gray sandstone, alternating with shale and carrying beds of coal, occupied the region south of Minas Basin and all of the Cumberland County peninsula. This sandstone was described in considerable detail, and from its fossil contents was judged to be a secondary rock, although evidently older than

Jackson and Alger's Work in Nova Scotia, 1828.



SAMUEL GEORGE MORTON.
Physician and Paleontologist.

the trap—a recognition here of the value of fossils for stratigraphic purposes.

The clay-slate of the South Mountains he regarded as belonging to the transition class, since it dips 50° or 60° to the northwest, while the sandstone dips at an angle of only 10° or 15° to the north, clearly indicating the former rock to be of greater antiquity than the latter. Moreover the slate contained only marine fossils. It was regarded also as having existed before the neighboring plutonic rocks had emerged from the central region of the earth.

The granite was regarded as being undoubtedly of greater age than the clay-slate, since it contained "no relics of organized beings." He did not, however, consider it as belonging to the oldest primitive rocks, since it showed at places a brecciated structure, contained black mica, and was "lacking in the metalliferous compounds and minerals which characterize the ancient formations." "It probably belongs," he wrote, "to the third or newest formation of Werner."

Concerning the source of the trap and its relationship to the sandstone, he wrote:

> The sharp fragments of the breccia and the breaking up of the strata also shew that the production of this rock or, rather, its nonconformable position on the sandstone strata, was effected suddenly. Whether it was ejected from the inaccessible depths of the Basin of Minas, or was thrown directly up through the strata of sandstone, we can not determine; but the occurrence of the trap only on the borders of the basin, which it almost surrounds, leads to the belief that this cavity was the crater, if it may be so called, from which, in former times, the trap rocks issued. The same remarks will apply to the whole North Mountain range, except that they probably originated from the unfathomable deeps of the Bay of Fundy, which is completely skirted on either side by trap rocks.

It will be noted here that Jackson for the first time cut loose from the Wernerian (Neptunian) doctrine. He realized this and stated that the evidence found convinced him of its insufficiency, and he was obliged to allow the superiority of the igneous theory as taught by Hutton, Playfair, and Daubeny.

Writing of the origin of the bed of hematite iron ore of the South Mountain region and its relation to the granites, he said:

> Speculative geologists would doubtless regard the protrusion of the granite from the central regions of our globe as the cause of the disruption of the strata of clay-slate which was thus raised from the bottom of the sea, bearing with it the spoils of the ocean. The layers would thus be broken, their edges thrown up at an angle, and, by the contraction of the subordinate rocks, the superior strata being fixed, or the protrusion having carried the rocks so far as to poise the strata in a perpendicular position, a chasm would be formed into which the ore of iron was afterwards poured from above by a second submergence. From the similarity of fossils we should think the bed of iron ore must have been immediately formed after the disruption of the strata.

In 1833 a revised edition of the work was published in the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. This was referred to

by Featherstonhaugh in his journal, as "the neatest and best executed work on geology which has been gotten up in the United States."

Sketch of C. T. Jackson.

Dr. Charles T. Jackson was born at Plymouth, Massachusetts, June 21, 1805; was graduated at the Harvard Medical School in 1829, and settled down to the practice of medicine in Boston in 1833, having spent a portion of the intervening years in Europe. He shortly, however, abandoned his medical practice in order that he might devote himself to chemical and geological investigations more to his taste. In 1836 he was appointed State geologist of Maine, and published during the three years he held that office three octavo reports comprising some 1,000 pages and an atlas of 24 plates. These volumes, while recording a large number of disconnected observations, contain nothing of striking interest or importance. They are devoted also largely to economic questions. It must be remembered, however, that the country at that time was largely a wilderness, without rail or carriage roads, and many of his journeys were made by canoes on streams and lakes.

In 1839, as State geologist, he made a survey of Rhode Island, and in the year following submitted the manuscript copy for his report, 1,000 copies of which were issued, constituting the first, last, and only official account of the resources of the State ever published (Woodworth). In 1840 he began work upon the geology of New Hampshire, having been appointed geologist for that State September, 1839. This survey lasted until 1843, the final report appearing in 1844. It was while in the prosecution of this work that he made the discovery of tin ore at Jackson, and from it smelted the first bar of metallic tin produced in America.

In 1847 Jackson was appointed United States geologist to report on the public lands in the Lake Superior region, but spent only two seasons in the field, resigning for personal and political reasons in 1849. It was through his instrumentality, however, in part, that the copper regions of Lake Superior were opened up. Other economic work of Jackson which needs mention is that in connection with the discovery and description of the emery mines at Chester, Massachusetts.

After withdrawing from the Lake Superior survey, Jackson devoted himself largely to laboratory work, having an office at 32 Somerset street, Boston. As is well known, he was one of the claimants for priority in the discovery of the anæsthetic properties of ether. He was well and favorably known as a chemist and all-round naturalist, and is described as "an enthusiastic personage, a ready conversationalist, even eloquent in his speech and fond of story telling—a man of large stature, square shoulders, and massive head." As a geologist he was conservative almost to the point of obstinacy, as is shown by his steady adherence to the older forms of classification, though finding it necessary to depart somewhat from the ideas of Werner. He

CHARLES THOMAS JACKSON.

State Geologist of Maine, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island.

was but little given to theorizing, at least so far as is shown by his published works, and announced few, if any, new principles. His fame rests rather upon the extension of the geographic boundaries of our knowledge and the development of economic resources.

The matter of the relative age of rocks as indicated by their position with respect to horizontality, which had been discussed by Cleaveland in 1816, Maclure in 1825, and Jackson in 1828, was again taken up by Vanuxem in 1829. In a paper in the American Journal of Science in this year he called attention to several errors promulgated by the American geologists, the first of which related to the existence of Alluvium and Tertiary rocks in the Southern Atlantic States, as he had previously announced in conjunction with Morton.

Vanuxem's Views, 1829.

Of almost equal importance was the objection raised at this time to the prevailing assumption that all of the so-called secondary rocks were horizontal in position, or, on the other hand, that all horizontal rocks were, therefore, secondary. He pointed out that rocks composed of mechanical particles when undisturbed would form horizontally lying masses, but that both uplifting and downfalling forces had existed and there was no certainty that such had acted in a uniform manner, giving rocks of the same age the same inclination. Therefore the position of beds as regards horizontality, he argued, could not be relied upon to indicate age. "The analogy or identity of rocks," he wrote, "I determine by their fossils in the first instance and their position and mineralogical characters in the second or last instance." This is perhaps one of the most important generalizations that had thus far been made by any American geologist.

Vanuxem was a Philadelphian by birth, but received his mineralogical and geological training at the School of Mines in Paris at the time when Brongniart and Hauy were both active. Graduating in 1819, he returned to America and assumed the chair of chemistry in Columbia College, South Carolina, resigning in 1826 to undertake some private mining work in Mexico. In 1830 he removed to a farm near Bristol, Pennsylvania, which continued to be his home during the rest of his life, though connected with the New York State survey during 1837–43.

Sketch of Vanuxem.

He is represented as a man of slight build, active and energetic, and with great powers of endurance; one who loved his work for the work's sake, and was always averse to receiving pay for his services excepting when circumstances rendered it absolutely necessary.

According to his biographer, he had the reputation of being visionary and full of untenable theories. Be this as it may, his published writings show no such failing, and there are few men of his day who saw more clearly or reasoned more correctly. His published writings were, for that time, remarkably free from error. As a geologist he

ranks with those who have put forward new ideas rather than those who have extended geographic boundaries.[a]

In 1829 there appeared the first American, from the third English, edition of Bakewell's Introduction to Geology. This was edited by Silliman, and was accompanied by the latter's Outline of the Course of Geological Lectures given in Yale College. The reason for the reprint, as given by Professor Silliman in the preface, was that he might place in the hands of his classes a comprehensive treatise on geology which they "would be willing to read and able to understand." The lecture notes, which merit our attention here, comprised 126 pages and may be reviewed in some detail as illustrating the character of instruction given at that time.

First American Edition of Bakewell's Geology, 1829.

Silliman announced himself as being neither a Wernerian nor Huttonian, but simply a student of facts. The classification was, however, largely Wernerian, though he says: "It is one of convenience merely, and therefore there is no hesitation in deviating from it, or in substituting other views, when they appear preferable." The discoveries of geology he regarded as consistent with the biblical account, and "respecting the deluge, there can be but one opinion * * * geology fully confirms the scripture history of that event."

The earth, he conceived, as at an early stage covered superficially by a watery abyss, containing in solution acids and alkalies such as would augment its solvent powers. He regarded the solubility of all the existing elements forming the crust of the globe as clearly and actually demonstrated, but found a serious difficulty in attributing to the quantity of waters that now exist * * * sufficient power to suspend all the materials of those rocks that bear marks of deposition from a state of chemical solution. Among other possibilities he, however, seriously considered that of a portion of the then existing waters having "been received into cavities of the earth, to await a future call to deluge the surface anew." From this solution the primitive rocks—granite, gneiss, mica, slate, and some of the limestones—were regarded as having been deposited, the author thus far following Werner.

The question as to the origin of mountains and of the continents was, with him, a vexed one. "Some imagine that entire mountain ranges and even entire continents have been raised by the force of subterranean fire," and he saw no inconsistency in admitting that both igneous and aqueous agencies might have been active in their production. But, as to the source of the materials from which they were formed, he felt by no means clear. If supplied from regions imme-

[a] According to Hall (Transactions of the American Association of Geologists, 1840–42), Vanuxem was the first to point out the similarity of some of the western formations with those of New York, identifying the lower rocks of Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee with the Trenton limestone.

LARDNER VANUXEM.

Geologist of New York State Survey.

diately beneath, what fills the void? he asked. If it is arched over from side to side, what security is there that subterranean fires will not melt down the abutments and undermine the continent? But, whether the mountains were raised from below, left prominent by the subsidence of the contiguous regions, or were reared by accumulation, he regarded as immaterial for his present purpose. "It is agreed on all hands that they existed before the subsidence of the early ocean, whose retreat must of course have first exposed their summits."

Among the rocks belonging to the transition period he included the crystalline limestones—marbles—of Bennington, Middlebury, and Swanton in Vermont; the graywackes of the Chaudiere Falls in Lower Canada, of Rhode Island, and of the Catskill Mountains; the breccia marble of Point of Rocks, Maryland; and the conglomerates of Dorchester and other locatities in Massachusetts. These, as is well known, are now relegated to various widely separated horizons, extending from the Cambrian in the case of the Swanton marbles to the Triassic in the case of that of Point of Rocks.

The manner in which the fossil organisms were conceived to have become imbedded in their various matrices is interesting:

> We can not doubt that the animals received their existence and lived and died in an ocean full of carbonate of lime, in solution, or in mechanical suspension, or both. When they died they of course subsided to the bottom and were surrounded, as they lay, by the concreting calcareous matter; * * * the interstices were filled by the calcareous deposit, and this being more or less chemically dissolved, produced a firm, subcrystalline mass, a section of which shows the animals sawn through.

Concerning the value of such remains, he was fully cognizant: "Fossil organic bodies contained in rocks are now considered as good indicia of the geological age and character of the strata in which they occur."

As with others of his time, Silliman was a believer in the Noachian deluge. Indeed, in point of detail, he outdid all others in his attempts at harmonizing apparently conflicting statements and ideas and wrote, as Huxley has aptly expressed it, "with one eye on fact and the other on Genesis." "There is decisive evidence that not further back than a few thousand years an universal deluge swept the surface of the globe." This deluge, it should be remarked, was considered quite distinct from the original, primeval ocean, and to have been brought about through direct intervention of the Creator for the purpose of punishing and partially exterminating the race. It was sudden in its occurrence, short in duration, and violent in its effects. In order to account for the biblical expression, "the fountains of the great deep were broken up," Silliman offered the suggestion that, contemporaneous with the forty days and nights of rain, a deluge of water burst forth from the bowels of the earth, whence it was forced by the sudden disengagement of gases, the presence of the subterranean water he having

already conveniently accounted for by assuming that it was derived from the primeval ocean at the time it shrank away and left the dry land. Sufficient water to cover, when forced to the surface, the highest mountains, could, he calculated, be contained in a cavity the cubical content of which was only one two hundred and sixty-fifth part of the globe.

Assuming that the antediluvian mountains were the same as to-day, but somewhat higher (say, 5½ miles), and accepting the fact that they were covered by the water, Silliman proceeded to show that, with a time limit of forty days, the water rose at the rate of a foot in two minutes i. e., 30 feet an hour, or 181 feet in the time of a common flood or ebb tide, 362 feet in the time of the ordinary ebb and flow of the tide, or 726 feet in twenty-four hours.

The inequalities in the surface of the land would, however, increase even this rate, and a very graphic picture is drawn of "the inconceivably violent torrents and cataracts everywhere descending the hills and mountains and meeting a tide rising at the rate of more than 700 feet in twenty-four hours."

It is to such a catastrophe that he believed to be due the extinction of whole races of vertebrate animals, like the Siberian mammoth and others. That such would be amply sufficient no one will be likely to doubt.

CHAPTER III.

THE ERA OF STATE SURVEYS, FIRST DECADE, 1830–1839.

The decade beginning with 1830 stands out prominently as an era of public surveys. With the exception of the single abortive attempt made in North Carolina in 1824 no surveys at other than private expense had thus far been attempted, though the subject had more than once been agitated. During this interval, however, scarcely a year passed but witnessed the establishment of a State survey or the organization of an exploring expedition, to which a geologist was attached. Thus were established surveys in Massachusetts in 1830; in Tennessee in 1831; Maryland in 1834; New Jersey, Connecticut, and Virginia in 1835; Maine, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania in 1836; Delaware, Indiana, and Michigan in 1837, and in New Hampshire and Rhode Island in 1839. In addition, the United States Government for the first time recognized the practical utility of the geologist by authorizing the surveys by G. W. Featherstonhaugh of the elevated country between the Missouri and Red rivers in 1834 and of the Coteau des Prairies in 1835, and by D. D. Owen of the mineral lands of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois in 1839.

The Wilkes exploring expedition, with J. D. Dana as geologist, was also organized and sent on its way in 1838. Beyond the limits of the United States Abraham Gesner was doing important work as provincial geologist in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. Eaton and Maclure were still in the field, but new workers were rapidly forcing their way to the front, and the influence of the two pioneers was already on the wane. Other names which appear in this decade and grow to prominence are Timothy A. Conrad, James Hall, William Mather, D. D. Owen, J. G. Percival, and H. D. Rogers.

Eaton's Geological Text-book, 1830–1832.

In 1830 Eaton published the first edition of his Geological Text-book, an octavo volume of 64 pages, accompanied by a colored geological map exhibiting a general view of the economic geology of New York and part of the adjoining States, the work for which had been done under the direction of the Hon. Stephen Van Rensselaer.

The book is worthy of a somewhat extended notice, since it gives us an insight into the character of the instruction furnished students at that time at the Rensselaer Institute, and also, since it was Eaton's second attempt at preparing a text-book. His first attempt, it will be remembered, was his Index to the Geology of the Northern States,

published in 1818, a second edition of which appeared in 1820. In these works he was anticipated only by Parker Cleaveland's Text-book of Geology and Mineralogy, which appeared in 1816, though the volume we are now discussing was anticipated in 1826 by the work of Emmons.

Eaton's general views regarding the formation of the various geological deposits are summed up as follows: "The earth is composed of masses of rocks and detritus which are more or less extensive and uniform in their characteristic constituents." "These masses are mostly in regular deposits, and those of the same structure and composition regard the same order of superposition in relation to each other." A few of the outermost masses, having no reference to each other, he called "anomalous deposits." He divided these regular deposits into five series, called classes, each of which "consists of three formations which are found to be corresponding equivalents in all the series. The lowest formation in each series is *slaty* or *argillaceous* and always contains beds of *carbon* in the state of coal, anthracite, or plumbago." The next is silicious and destitute of beds of carbon, and the uppermost, also lacking in carbon, is composed chiefly of carbonate of lime.

All the primitive formations he regarded as deposited in the form of concentric spheres like the coats of an onion. These contained the materials of which all outer formations were afterwards made up. "Soon after these deposits were laid down they were broken up through several northerly and southerly rents by a very great force exerted immediately beneath the lowest of the primitive strata. In this semi-indurated and broken state materials were readily furnished for the outer strata." The source of the force producing these rents, it will be remembered, was in his early works regarded as problematical (p. 238).

In this last work he, however, solved the problem in a manner best understood by reference to the figures here reproduced, which he claimed were an improvement on those given in the Index.

The earth is here supposed to be cut into two parts at the forty-second degree of north latitude. Large bodies of combustibles of an undetermined nature, it will be observed, are conveniently stored under what are now the regions of maximum disturbance, as the Rocky Mountains, New England, Great Britain, the Alps, Pyrenees, Caucasus, and the Himalayas.

In the second figure combustion is supposed to have taken place, whereby an explosion was produced which burst through the primitive and transition series, and appalling indeed must have been the results.

A geological segment, not reproduced here, gives in greater detail a section across the American continent, showing the internal nucleus, the areas of combustible matter under New York State and the Rocky Mountains, and the alternation of the regular deposits, illustrating his ideas as to the present condition of the earth. The combustible

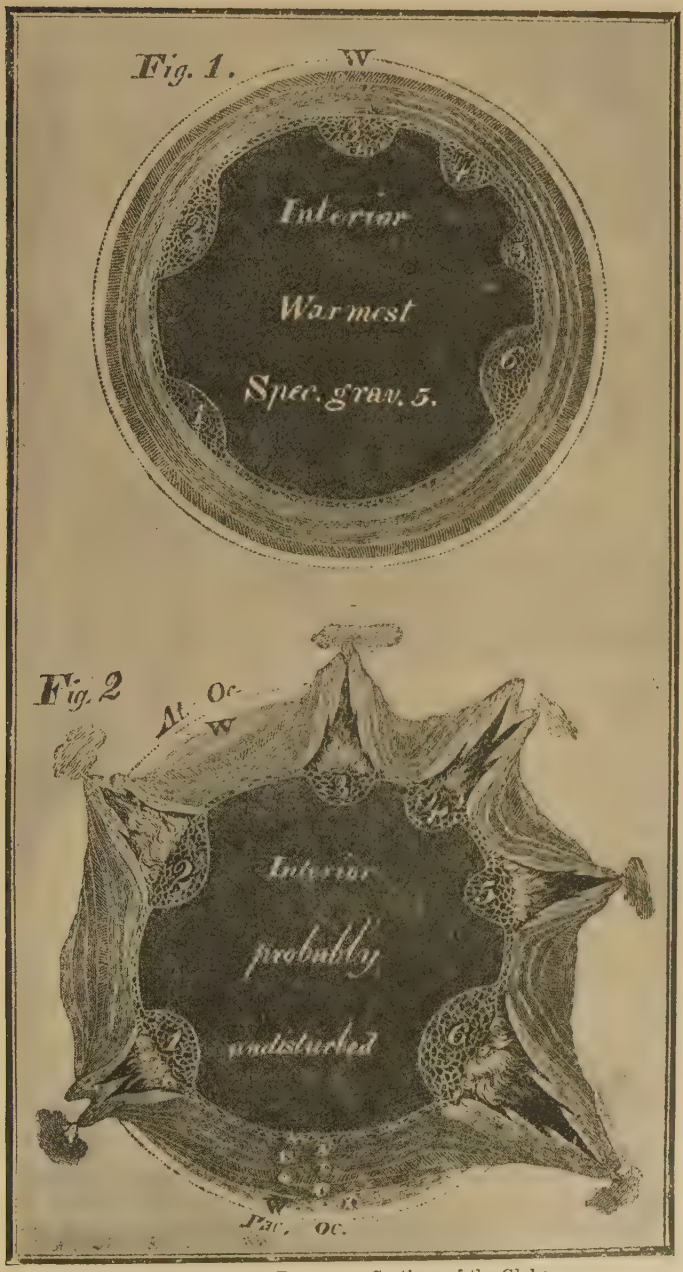


FIG. 19.—Eaton's Transverse Sections of the Globe.

materials at this time are supposed to be nearly exhausted, although still sufficient to cause ordinary earthquakes.

The superficial rocks of the crust, as shown in this section, were divided into four series, each of which was made up, in ascending order, of Carboniferous, Quartzose and Calcareous rocks. The definitions of the various classes forming the transition and secondary remained much as in the early work, excepting that he divided his Class III into a lower and upper division and added a fifth series, the Tertiary, this latter including those strata which contained remains of viviparous vertebral animals.

The so-called anomalous deposits were those which have been produced at the earth's surface by fusion or disintegration of regular strata, and were divided into (1) Volcanic deposits, (2) Diluvion, (3) Postdiluvion, and (4) Analluvion, the last including what are known as residual deposits—that is, those which result from decay in situ.

In the second edition of this work, published in 1832, the same general ideas were advanced regarding the formation and uplifting of the various rocks; a much more satisfactory chapter added on the character and objects of geology, and also a chapter on organized remains as auxiliaries in the determination of rocky strata, in this respect the second edition being decidedly in advance of the first.[a]

Many of the ideas put forward in the chapter on the character and objects of geology are, in the light of to-day, peculiarly interesting. The desire to harmonize all phenomena witnessed with the biblical account of the deluge was still manifested:

> Geological facts lead us to the history of created beings long anterior to written records. Such records may be erroneous, and we have no means of correcting them. But geological records are perpetual, unvarying, and can not be vitiated by interpolations or counterfeits. For example: The written history of the deluge might be varied more or less by erroneous copies and incorrect translations. But the geological records of divine wrath poured out upon the rebellious inhabitants of the earth at that awful period can never be effaced or changed. These later records add, to the Mosaic account, that even the antediluvial beasts of the forests and fens partook of the ferocious nature and giant strength of antediluvial man.

The bed of Lake Ontario Eaton regarded as made by the rapid disintegration of Saliferous and Carboniferous rock, while the beds of Lake Champlain and the Mohawk and Hudson rivers were thought to have originated, for the most part, by the disintegration of rocks at

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[a] The edition of 1832 was issued and sold under direct supervision of the author. The following note relative thereto is in possession of the present writer:

To General Howe (or whoever has received my geological text-book), deliver a copy of my text-book to Professor Silliman and another to Professor Tulley (?), on my account. Charge them to William S. Parker and I will cause the same to be charged to me and also to be credited to you. July 24, 1832.

AMOS EATON.

N. B. I publish this edition myself, and have paid all cash, by way of trial.

line of contact between different formations. "The deep bed of the Hudson across the Highlands, however, may, without extravagance, be ascribed to the fusion by volcanic heat which produced the basaltic Palisades below the chasm. The same hypothesis may be well applied to the channel of the Connecticut River north of the northern line of Massachusetts, whence the volcanic lava flowed which now covers a series of basaltic prominences which form the northern part of Long Island Sound." And this as late as 1830–1832! Yet the Rensselaer school, where Eaton was teaching, was, and continued to be for many years, the chief training school for American geologists. Fortunately, his students were taught to *think* and not to blindly follow.

Eaton claimed at this date (1832) to have devoted more time and labor to American geology than any other individual, and credits Gen. Stephen Van Rensselaer with having furnished the necessary facilities. "I made the first attempt," he wrote, "at a systematic arrangement of American rock strata." The various discoveries which he thought might be claimed as having been made under the auspices above noted are as follows:

(1) That each of the classes of rocks always begins with a Carboniferous slate and terminates with calcareous rocks, having a middle formation of quartzose.

(2) The discovery of ferriferous stratum containing argillaceous iron ores, and which extends unbroken from near Utica to the extreme termination of Lake Ontario, in Upper Canada.

(3) That the bog-ore properly belongs to the Tertiary formation.

(4) That talcose slate is the grand repository of hematitic iron ore, peroxide of manganese, and native gold.

(5) That the Corniferous lime rock is the true carboniferous only.

(6) That crystalline granite is not entitled to a place among general strata, as it is never found other than as a bed or vein.

(7) That granular quartz rock and granular lime rock are entitled to a place among general strata.

(8) That all primitive rocks, excepting granular quartz and lime rocks, are contemporaneous.

(9) That there is evidence of a diluvian stratum having been deposited near the termination of the deluge, which formed an universal mantle about the earth.

In discussing the "regular" deposits, he wrote:

> They exhibit grounds for conjecture, if not absolute demonstration, that the surface of the earth had undergone five general modifications which no animals survived. Four of these modifications were followed by as many new creations of animals, two new creations succeeding the final depositions of all regular strata. In the whole there appeared to have been five creations of animals at least, and perhaps ten, since the primitive mass of earth was formed.

In his chapter on soils, it is instructive to note, he recognized and emphasized a principle now generally accepted, to the effect that the fertility of the soils does not depend upon ultimate chemical constitution, but rather upon physical properties; that a fertile soil should contain, first, sufficient stones and pebbles to keep it open and loose; second, sufficient clay to absorb and hold water in the right proportion; and third, sufficient fine sand to prevent the clay from baking in time of drought.

That the fertility of a soil could not be told by a chemical analysis had been stated by him some years earlier, as follows:

> Suppose, in one specimen, the soil, etc., should be quartz, in another feldspar, in another hornblende, in another sapphire, in another diamond, would there be any difference in the influence of the sand, etc., upon the productive quality of the soil on account of the different ultimate elements of which these different minerals are composed? Should they be so far decomposed, at some future period, as to become an impalpable powder, perhaps they may then differ in their influence upon vegetation. Perhaps we may foretell the future state of the country a century or two to come, where such extreme disintegration is effected. But the difference in the ultimate constituents can not possibly affect the question of fertility or barrenness *at the time the analysis is made*. For whatever effect can be ascribable to the one is equally a property of the other. They all hold water on their surfaces by the attraction of adhesion; they all keep the soil duly open and porous to give passage to the roots of vegetables; they all aid alike in bracing up plants and in keeping them in a fixed position, etc. Whatever is effected by one is effected by all—size, form, quantity, and all circumstances, other than their constituent elements, agreeing.[a]

To this second edition he added a chapter of some 11 pages on the science of mining, one of 12 pages on localities, and 5 pages on fossils. His gradually expanding views as to the value of fossils in geological work are shown in his paper on Geological Equivalents of this year (1832). He here advanced the idea that the enumeration of the mineral constituents of rocks could never be satisfactorily applied for the determination of the relative position of strata, but that recourse must be had to the organic remains. "We find the same organized remains associated with equivalent strata in every part of the earth."[b]

If we are to judge from the preface of the edition of 1830, Eaton was by no means lacking in egotism, and had, at times, an unfortunate way of expressing his opinions, such as must have aroused antagonism

[a] American Journal of Science, XII, June, 1827, p. 370.

[b] The first edition of Eaton's work was somewhat savagely reviewed by a writer in the North American Review for April, 1831. From its perusal one might be led to suppose that the following extract from a letter by Eaton to Silliman in 1839 had a sounder basis than Eaton would himself be likely to acknowledge. He wrote: "I was one of your earliest correspondents on geology, consequently it is to be presumed that I have introduced more errors to the public through your journal than any other individual." Most writers will say things of themselves which they would resent if said by others.

in the minds of his collaborators. Thus, in referring to the work just mentioned, he wrote:

A *text-book* is too small a name for these days of puffing arrogance. But I propose to present all my *supposed heresies* to the geological fraternity in this form and under this title. And I beg the favor of the most rigorous criticism upon this book, small as it is. To stimulate men of science to the work of examination and of criticism, I will state that I intend to publish considerable in scientific journals, also a full system upon this plan. As I have had more than 7,000 pupils already (rather auditors), and shall probably have more still, it will be well for them "to be on the alert" if I am propagating errors. I am not in sport; I have, during the last fifteen years, traveled over 17,000 miles for the express purpose of collecting geological materials, the results of which are comprised in this little octavo pamphlet and exhibited in the accompanying map and wood cuts.

I may be accused of fickleness, on account of the changes which appear in every successive book I publish. I confess this is the ninth time I have published a geological nomenclature, and that I made changes in each of more or less importance. But I have always consulted my scientific friends, and every change was founded on new discoveries in "matters of fact."

And further on:

Students for whom this text-book is intended may feel no interest in anything *personal* relating to myself. But I will throw this paragraph in their way. I have been accused of arrogance for stating facts relating to American geology without formally bowing to European authorities. * * * I confess that this is a kind of "ipse dixit" text-book. It is so, because the plan does not admit of demonstration. In a future publication I intend to cite authorities from nature to illustrate my views. But I am prepared to abandon any of them, as I have frequently done heretofore, in cases of numerous errors, to which I am still subject.

Geology is a progressive science, and he who has any respect for his future reputation should be exceedingly cautious about committing himself on matters of fact or speculation. I confess that I have *most egregiously* violated this rule, but there are peculiar circumstances in my case, arising from my being "a hireling drudge" to the most munificent patron of this science (Stephen Van Rensselaer), which will palliate, at least, if not justify.

I despise arrogance; but I am within sixteen years of the "three score and ten," when the mind of man is averaged beyond the period of vigorous effort. About two score of these years have been devoted to natural science. I offer this as an apology for some dogmas forbidden to youth.[a]

Monthly American Journal of Geology, 1831.

In July of 1831 there appeared the first number of G. W. Featherstonhaugh's Monthly American Journal of Geology and Natural History. This proved a short-lived but vigorously conducted journal in which essays on geology, as understood by the editor, occupied a leading part in each number. Troubles, financial and otherwise, beset the venture, and amongst the "otherwise" may be mentioned a lack of appreciation and support where he apparently had a right to expect both. "So that a work which has hitherto been stamped with general approbation, * * *

[a] One can almost imagine him saying with Emerson "What is well done I feel as if I did, what is ill done I reck not of."

has not been permitted to have a single subscriber in New Haven, the pretended seat of an American Geological Society," is his fierce plaint in the ninth issue.[a]

Featherstonhaugh was a man of English birth and some means, who came to America when quite young apparently merely through love of

[a] Featherstonhaugh's efforts seem to have been better appreciated abroad than at home, if we may judge from the following:

The editor lays before his readers, with a just pride and entire satisfaction, the following communication from the president of the Geological Society of London, and other distinguished naturalists:

LONDON, *June 18, 1831.*

MY DEAR SIR: We, your undersigned friends in England, are happy to learn that you propose to establish a new periodical work in the United States, which, in embracing all subjects connected with the natural history of America, is to be specially devoted to the accumulation of geological facts and phenomena.

Knowing your zeal and ability, we have great hopes that a work so directed will meet with every encouragement in your country, and we are certain that it can not but be of service to the cause of science in general.

We shall at all times be desirous of aiding you with any communication in our power, and we subscribe ourselves,

Yours, very faithfully,

RODERICK IMPEY MURCHISON,
President of the Geological Society of London.

DAVIES GILBERT,
Vice-President Royal Society.

W. D. CONYBEARE, F. R. S., F. G. S., etc.

A. SEDGWICK, F. R. S., F. G. S., etc.,
Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge.

WM. BUCKLAND, D. D., F. R. S., etc.,
Christ Church College, Oxford.

GEORGE BELLAS GREENOUGH, F. R. S., etc.
CHARLES STOKES, F. R. S., etc.

P. S.—I can not refrain, in particular, on my own part, from expressing the desire which I feel for the appearance of the proposed publication, as likely to conduce in the most important points to the effective progress of geology; to ascertain in detail the suite of formations, and the series of organic remains distinguishing them in a new continent, so widely separated from the old, and embracing such a range of various climate. So to compare the phenomena with those of Europe has ever appeared to me the most material desideratum in geology, for we may be sure that any analogies which are common to localities geographically so distant, and placed under physical conditions so distinct, are, in truth, analogies belonging generally to the whole globe; and thus we shall obtain data adequate for the foundation of a general geological theory.

Well acquainted with the attention you have paid to the formations on this side of the Atlantic, I am convinced that the execution of this task can not fall into more competent hands.

W. D. CONYBEARE.

G. W. FEATHERSTONHAUGH, Esq., *Philadelphia.*

travel. Being of good presence—standing more than 6 feet in height, well educated, and an accomplished musician—he easily procured admission into the best of society, married an American girl, and established himself at Duanesburg, in New York, but was, apparently, never naturalized. He appears to have taken an active interest in agricultural, scientific, and political affairs, and, in company with Stephen Van Rensselaer, became one of the directors of the railroad from Albany to Schenectady, a charter for which was granted in 1826. The death of his wife and two daughters, however, caused him to leave Duanesburg and turn his thoughts toward exploration and science. He therefore removed to Philadelphia, where he established, in 1831, the journal above mentioned.

Sketch of Featherstonhaugh.

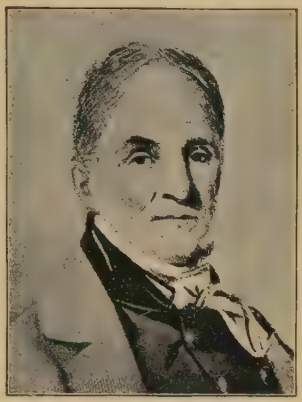


FIG. 20.—George William Featherstonhaugh.

In 1834, and again in 1835, he was appointed a Government geologist, but his work was extremely superficial and of only historical interest. Concerning his work in the elevated country lying between the Missouri and Red rivers—the Ozark region—and his subsequent work in the upper Mississippi region, Whitney, after numerous quotations, remarks:[a]

> From the above it will be seen that this so-called geological reconnaissance was about as worthless rubbish as could well be put together, neither correctly describing any facts which came under their author's observation, nor giving any theoretical views worthy a moment's notice, except from their absurdity.

The year 1831 seems, on the whole, to have been singularly uneventful in geological history, but few papers of importance appearing, although undoubtedly a large amount of hard, preliminary work was being done.

Geological Survey of Tennessee, 1831-35.

Perhaps the most important event of the year was the establishment of the State geological survey of Tennessee, with Gerard Troost, then professor of geology and chemistry in the University of Nashville, but formerly of Philadelphia, at its head. This survey continued in existence until 1845, during which time eight annual reports were made, the first two of which were not published. The third report, made in October, 1835, comprised but 32 octavo pages and dealt particularly with the extent of the coal formations and investigations of the soil, marls, and iron ores. It was accompanied by a geological map, in which the coal area, colored in pink, was indicated as extending in a gradually narrowing belt from the northeast to the southwest in the region lying west of the Tennessee River.

[a] Upper Mississippi Lead Region, 1862, p. 80.

Troost's fourth report appeared in 1837, in form of a pamphlet of 37 pages. Of these the first 20 were given up to a general exposition of geology, as he understood it. This was followed by a description of that part of the State lying south of the Hiwassee River and east of the Tennessee, and known as the Ocoee district. A map of this district and a colored geological section were given, the latter extending in a general northeast to southwest direction from the Tennessee River to a point near Nicajack. The entire area to the point of the intersection of the Chattanooga Creek was colored as occupied by "grauwacke," with outcrops of primordial limestone coming to the surface near Coqua Creek. The region to the west of Chattanooga Creek was represented as underlaid by mountain limestone, with the Coal Measures forming Lookout Mountain and Raccoon Mountain. These Carboniferous rocks, it should be noted, were indicated as unconformable with all other rocks of the region.

Troost's Fourth Report, 1837.

The fifth annual report was made November, 1839, and comprised all told 75 pages, including an appendix. This was accompanied by a colored geological map of the State, the first which had thus far appeared, and also a colored section across the entire State from Roane Mountain, in Carter County, to Randolph, on the Mississippi. On this map the Roane Mountain rock was colored as primordial, mostly granite. An area from and including the Smoky Mountains to a point a little west of Kingston, on the Clinch River, was colored as transition, composed of graywacke, slate, limestone, and sandstone, all alternating with each other, and in strata highly inclined and dipping toward the southeast. From the last-named point to the Tennessee River the country was stated to be underlaid by mountain limestone horizontally stratified, upon which rested the Cumberland Mountains, composed of Coal-Measure rocks, mostly horizontally stratified, and the Buffalo and Harpeth hills, just east of the Tennessee River, which were put down as formed of siliceous strata, assuming sometimes an earthy appearance, sometimes that of chert, and horizontally stratified.

Troost's Fifth Annual Report.

The region west of the Tennessee was given as mostly occupied by secondary strata composed of Cretaceous marl, greensand, and clay, horizontally stratified.

It should be noted that Troost, while seemingly recognizing the importance of the fossils carried by the rocks of various ages, did not attempt to utilize them systematically as means of correlation. On page 18, however, he wrote:

> The lowest part of the stratum, where it is near the encrinital limestone, often contains members of Encrinites, and other fossils of that stratum, and are invariably of a calcareous nature. This shows that the formation of those siliceous strata is more or less contemporaneous with the encrinital strata.

The condition of paleontological science at this date (1832), so far as it related to the Trilobites at least, is shown by Dr. Jacob Green's Monograph of the Trilobites of North America, a duodecimo volume of 93 pages and one plate of ten figures. Thirty-three species were described. In a supplement bearing date of 1835 this number was increased to forty. A series of casts, examples of which are still to be found in many of our educational institutions, accompanied the original publication.

Green's Monograph, 1832.

FIG. 21.—Jacob Green.

The true nature of the *Trilobite* was at that time not well understood. Green himself seems at first inclined to agree with Latreille, who, owing to their supposed footless condition, placed them intermediate between the Chitons and the Articulates.[a] Brongniart, Dekay, and others, it will be remembered, considered them as belonging to the *Entomostraca*.

A contemplated chapter on this branch of the subject remained unwritten, since the author felt that all matters of dispute were "put to rest by the late discovery of some living trilobites in the southern seas." Concerning the exact position in the zoological scale of these "living" forms there still exists some doubt. Dr. James Eights, who originally described them under the name of *Spæroma humastiformis*, seems to have regarded them as Isopods. Emmons, in his Geology of the Second District of New York, on the other hand, referred to them as Trilobites, while Zittel, in the latest edition of his Handbook on Paleontology, refers them once more to the Isopods.

Green's ideas as to the value of fossils as indices of geological age were not as advanced as those of most of his colleagues or as his time would lead one to expect. After quoting some of the prevalent opinions, he adds in a footnote:

> Nothing can be more opposed to true science than to pronounce on priority of formation or the comparative age of rocks from either their structure or the organic remains they present.

Concerning Brongniart's expressed opinion relative to the preponderating value of fossil over lithological criteria, he wrote:

> This seems to us to imply an admission that nothing definite can be inferred from the *nature of the rocks;* moreover, that between the nature of the rock and the organic remains there may be a palpable discrepancy. * * * The event has proved, from what we have already mentioned, that no evidence as to priority can be obtained from the nature of the fossil remains displayed in particular strata.

[a] The *Trilobites* have since been shown to have feet.

And this from a paleontologist!

Although the geological map referred to on page 219 was the most important of Maclure's works and the one upon which his fame as a geologist largely rests, there are at least two papers of later date that are worthy of consideration. The first of these bears the title Observations on the Geology of the West India Islands from Barbados to Santa Cruz, Inclusive. This was printed for the author in pamphlet form in 1832, while he was at New Harmony, Indiana. The mineralogical nature of the materials composing the islands was noted as well as many of the structural features. He thought to divide the islands into two distinct classes on geological grounds, the first, or most eastern, comprising the islands of Barbados, Marie Galante, Grande Terre in Guadeloupe, Desirade, Antigua, St. Bartholomew, St. Martin, Anguilla, and Santa Cruz. These he found composed mainly of shell-limestone or madrepore rock belonging to the transition class, though sometimes capped by secondary rocks. The second class, including the Grenadines, St. Vincent, St. Lucien, Martinique, Dominica, Basse Terre in Guadeloupe, Montserrat, Nevis, St. Christopher, St. Eustatia, and Saba, were more or less volcanic and regarded as probably thrown up from the bed of the ocean. Such an origin he felt to be proven by their containing intermingled masses of volcanic rock and coral or madrepore limestone. The idea that volcanic activity was dependent upon combustion, as the word is commonly used, still prevailed with him, and from the fact that the line of islands corresponded closely with the strike of the rocks composing them he thought that the seat of combustion probably existed in some stratified substance running parallel to the general stratification of the surrounding rocks. Further, since he found on the islands soufrieres which deposited sulphur as well as formed alum rock, he concluded that sulphur was one of the combustible ingredients.

Maclure's Geology of the West Indies, 1832.

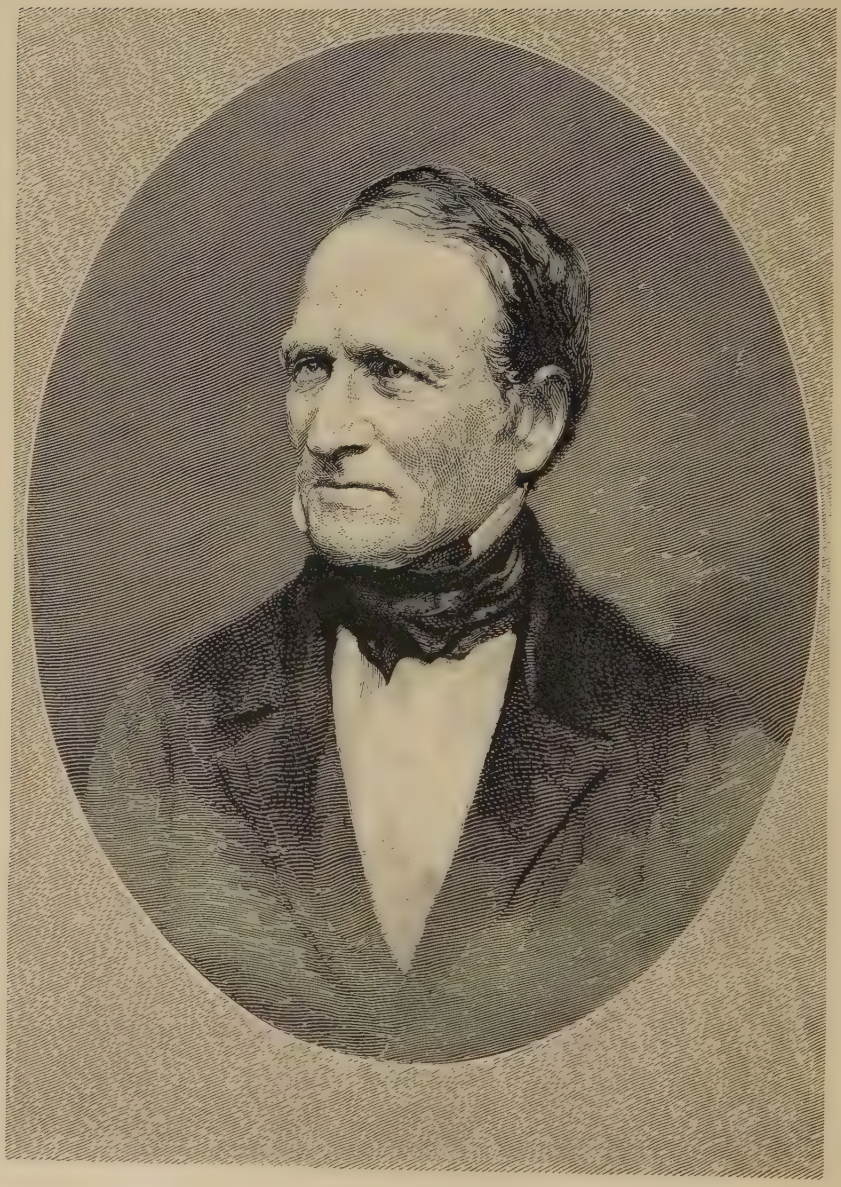
Maclure's second paper referred to, An Essay on the Formation of Rocks, or an Inquiry into the probable Origin of their Present Form and Structure, appeared in 1838. In this the rocks were divided into three classes: First. The Neptunian, including those plainly of aqueous origin. Second, the volcanic; and third, those of doubtful origin, under which head he would place gneiss, mica, and clay slate, primitive limestone, syenite, granite, greenstone, etc.

Maclure on the Formation of Rocks, 1838.

In 1832 the melancholy Conrad began the publication of his work on the fossil shells of the Tertiary formations of North America. This marks, according to Dr. G. D. Harris, "the beginning of systematic research into this part of our continent's history."

Conrad's Tertiary of North America, 1832.

The work was published in parts and in small editions, largely at Conrad's own expense, the numerous plates of illustrations being pre-



EDWARD HITCHCOCK.

Professor of Geology, Amherst College.

pared, even to the drawing on stone, by himself. Nos. 1 and 2 appeared in 1832, and Nos. 3 and 4 in 1833. These editions early became exhausted, and in 1893 a new edition was prepared through the instrumentality of Doctor Harris. It will be well to mention here that a second edition of his Medial Tertiary fossils was brought out this same year by Dr. W. H. Dall, working in conjunction with the Wagner Free Institute of Philadelphia.

The work of 1832–33 contained little of a strictly geological nature, being mainly devoted to a description of the various fossil invertebrates belonging to the Tertiary formations. Conrad divided the Tertiary, in conformity with the English custom, into an Upper Marine formation, a Middle Tertiary formation, and a Lower Tertiary formation, and gave the geographic extensions of each so far as they are known.

In 1830 the legislature of Massachusetts passed a resolve authorizing the appointment of a surveyor to make a general survey of the Commonwealth, and on the fifth of June following, on the recommendation of Governor Lincoln, further authorized the appointment of "some suitable person" to make, in connection with this survey, a geological examination of the region involved. On February 2, 1831, the limits of the geological survey were extended so as to allow the inclusion in the report of a list of the mineralogical, botanical, and zoological productions.

Hitchcock's Survey of Massachusetts, 1830, 1833, 1841.

Prof. Edward Hitchcock, then professor of chemistry and natural history in Amherst College, was selected as the "suitable person," and presented, early in 1832, a report of 72 pages, with a colored geological map, on the economic geology of the State. Of this 600 copies were ordered printed. In the early part of 1833 reports on the topographic geology (37 pages), scientific geology (430 pages), and the catalogues of animals and plants, with an appendix containing a list of the rocks and minerals described (248 pages), were likewise submitted.

The legislature promptly accepted these reports likewise and ordered the printing of 1,200 copies, including a reprint of the report first made. Altogether these formed an octavo volume of 692 pages, with numerous figures in the text, and a folio volume of 19 plates, including a colored map. The publication of this report marks an epoch in American geological work, since it brought to a successful conclusion the first survey of an entire State at public expense.[a] It is true that spasmodic beginnings had been made in North and South Carolina, but such were so lacking in breadth of conception and failed so utterly in execution that it is only by courtesy that they can be considered as *geological* surveys at all. Under these conditions a detailed review of the contents of the reports will not be out of place here.

[a] The total expense to the State of the three years' work, exclusive of cost of printing, was $2,030.

In the consideration of the application of Beaumont's theory of mountains to those of Massachusetts, Hitchcock thought to find six systems of strata and contemporaneous uplift in the State. These six systems as enumerated are: (1) The oldest meridional system, (2) the trap system, (3) the latest meridional system, (4) the northeast and southwest system, (5) the east and west system, and (6) the northwest and southeast system.

The Hoosac Mountains, considered under his oldest meridional system, he regarded as due to two different epochs of elevation, the last taking place after the deposition of the new red sandstone, as was shown by the slight dip (15° to 20°) of the latter, while the slates and gneisses of the range stand nearly vertical. The force which gave rise to mountain uplift he regarded as gravity acting on the crust as the nucleus gradually shrunk away in process of cooling.

Not the least interesting chapters in Hitchcock's work are those relating to the unstratified rocks. Here, under the name of *greenstone*, he included the entire series of basic and intermediate eruptives now classed as melaphyrs, diabases, and diorites. Their mineral composition was stated, however, as hornblende and feldspar, though the mineral identified as hornblende has been proven by modern microscopic methods to have been almost wholly augite. Columnar, compact, amygdaloidal, and porphyritic varieties were recognized.

Concerning the igneous origin of these rocks he professed little doubt, and he accounted for their appearance in the form of continuous sheets on the assumption that they were poured out, not from craters but from linear openings produced by the shrinkage of the earth's interior. Thus early was recognized the phenomena of fissure eruptions, as later developed by Geikie and others.

Commenting on the occurrence of the greenstone in "veins," as at Nahant, he expressed the opinion that the slate in which these veins occurred could not have been solid at the time of the intrusion, this on account of the size of the fissures, which seemed to him to be too wide to have been formed by desiccation. Evidently the possibility of the formation of these fissures by dynamic agencies acting on consolidated materials was not then realized.

Under the name of *porphyry* he included the compact eruptive rocks now classed mainly as aporhyolites or quartz porphyries, such as form the cliffs at Marblehead, and are also found in other localities, as Hingham and Malden. Their porphyritic structure he thought could result only from igneous solution. The base of these porphyries he stated to be of compact feldspar, which he regarded as formed by the melting down of preexisting feldspathic rocks.

The slaty structure sometimes shown, and which is now recognized as flow structure, he regarded as representing the original structure of the slaty rock from which the porphyry was derived by fusion.

This view is interesting when compared with those put forward nearly half a century later by one who, working under the misguided T. Sterry Hunt, argued in favor of the sedimentary origin of the entire series.

Hitchcock thought it probable that the mica slate and gneisses of the Hoosac Range passed laterally into one another, owing to a decrease in the amount of feldspar in the gneissic rock. Such a transition seemed to him as possible, whether the rocks were to be regarded as direct crystallizations from aqueous solution or sedimentaries crystallized through the influence of heat. He himself was inclined to the belief that these schists and gneisses were metamorphosed sediments, since he could conceive of no chemical process by which such a variety of minerals as those contained by them could have crystallized out simultaneously from solution. Such a crystallization, he argued, would be differential.

He utilized this same argument in writing on the origin of the granites. These latter he looked upon as resulting from the melting down of other rocks, gneisses being due to the more or less complete fusion and crystallization of feldspathic sandstone. The deeper lying portions, which were most highly heated, gave rise to granitic gneiss, and those further removed gave rise to the porphyritic, lamellar, and schistic varieties. It will be of interest to compare these views with those advanced by Clarence King nearly forty years later.

Hitchcock classed under the name of graywacke the siliceous conglomerate of Dorchester and Roxbury (now considered as of Cambrian age), and, indeed, every conglomerate sandstone and fragmentary formation that was older than the red sandstone and coal formation, thus avowedly following Humboldt.[a]

Under a misapprehension regarding the character of the amygdules, he included under the name of *varioloid wacke* the melaphyr of Brighton and elsewhere, as well as other altered Paleozoic lavas found at Hingham, Needham, and Saugus; also the siliceous or flinty slates of Nahant and jasper of Newport.

The red sandstones of the Connecticut Valley were rightly set down as belonging to the New Red, he having identified the upper portions of the bed with the New Red sandstone of Europe through the presence of "vertebral" remains found at East Windsor, Connecticut, and Sunderland and other localities in Massachusetts. He still, however, thought it not impossible that the lower portion of the beds might correspond to the Old Red sandstone of Europe. It will be remembered that in the American Journal of Science for 1823 he considered these upper beds as belonging to the coal formation, on account of the included thin seams of bituminous coals.

[a] Humboldt's Essay on the Trend of Rocks in the Two Hemispheres appeared in 1822.

The Tertiary formations of the State he divided into two general groups, the most recent being made to include the beds of blue plastic clay alternating with layers of white siliceous sand, and the second division the plastic clays of Gayhead and Nantucket.

Naturally the drift so abundantly distributed over the surface was attributed to the action of the Noachian deluge. "That seen about Cape Ann can not fail to impress every reasoning mind with the conviction that a deluge of tremendous power must have swept over this cape. Nothing but a substratum of syenite could have stood before its devastating energy."

One of the points which must impress the reader who is at all conversant with the work of modern physiographers is the inability of Hitchcock, as well as his contemporaries, to understand the relationship existing between a river and the channel in which it flowed. Discussing the course of the Connecticut River, he wrote: "The ordinary laws of physical geography seem here to be set at defiance," and "the geologist will be surprised to find it crossing the greenstone ridge" at its highest part, i. e., through the gorge between Mounts Holyoke and Tom. The facts that he deduced from this and other like illustrations are that "surely the Connecticut River did not excavate its own bed, but the gorges through which it and the Deerfield and Westfield pass were excavated to a considerable depth before they began to flow."

The student of to-day need scarcely be reminded that the river did excavate its own channel and ran in essentially its present position before the warping which brought the trap ridge across its course took place.

Hitchcock was not a believer in the doctrine of uniformitarianism; indeed, while perhaps not an extreme catastrophist, he combated vigorously the views put forth by Lyell in his Principles,[a] and argued for the greater intensity of geological agencies in the earlier periods of the earth's history. Some of his reasons for this belief are worthy of attention. He believed the continent to have been elevated above the ocean, not little by little, but by a few paroxysmal efforts of volcanic force. Since this force, as acting during the past four thousand years, seemed too feeble to result in the elevation of a single mountain chain, so, he argued, it must have been more energetic in previous epochs.

The fact that the older rocks are more distorted and highly metamorphosed than the younger was also regarded as indicative of the greater intensity of the earlier productive agencies. Singularly enough, the near-shore origin of beds of conglomerate was not realized, the occasional occurrence of such among sedimentary rocks being regarded as due to the "occasional recurrence of powerful

[a] The first edition of this celebrated work appeared in 1830.

debacles of water," the like of which can not be produced by any causes now in operation.

Concerning the origin of valleys there was manifested a great dearth of knowledge. "I am in doubt whether there is more than one valley in Massachusetts that is, strictly speaking, a valley of denudation," that being the one lying between Mount Toby and Sugar Loaf. The valleys in Berkshire and Worcester and possibly also that of the Merrimac River were regarded as primary, more or less modified by deluges and other abrading agencies.

Accompanying this report was a volume of nineteen plates, comprising a colored geological map of the State; nine general and special views; four of fossils; a map of the valley of the Connecticut; a map showing the direction of the strata; two plates of sections, three of which ran in an east and west direction and one in a north and south; and one "tabular view" of the rocks and their imbedded minerals.

On the map the rocks were colored as belonging to six groups, as below. It will be noted that there is no attempt at other than a lithological classification until the New Red sandstone and Tertiary are reached.

1. Granite.
2. Syenite.
3. Greenstone.
4. Porphyry.

5. Gneiss.
6. Hornblende slate associated with gneiss.
7. Quartz rocks associated with gneiss.

8. Mica slate.
9. Quartz rock.
10. Talcose slate.
11. Chlorite slate.
12. Hornblende slate.

13. Limestone.
14. Scapolite rock.

Miscellaneous: Steatite. Serpentine.

15. Grauwacke.
16. Argillaceous slate.
17. New Red sandstone.

18. Tertiary.
19. Diluvium.
20. Alluvium.

Deposits and mines of useful minerals were noted, among them being plumbago, coal, peat, lead, iron, copper, and manganese.

The drawings of fossils and the general views were the work of Mrs. Hitchcock.

In 1837 Doctor Hitchcock was commissioned by Governor Everett to make a further geological and mineralogical survey in which

economic problems should be of primary importance. His report appeared in the form of House Document No. 52, under date of 1838. In 1839 the legislature authorized the reprinting of all the reports, with such additions and corrections as the author chose to make. This reprint appeared in 1841 in the form of two quarto volumes of 831 pages, the first 126 of which are given up to a discussion of the soils, their kind, origin, and fertility.

Hitchcock here followed closely Sir H. Davy, Berzelius, and S. L. Dana, and dwelt particularly upon the problematic geine, a substance resulting from vegetable decomposition and supposed to contain all the essentials of plant food. This part of the work is of interest as containing C. T. Jackson's expressed and well-founded doubt as to the existence of such a body, and a long letter from S. L. Dana attempting to prove the chemical unity of the compound. Some twenty pages were devoted to fossil fuels, with especial reference to the anthracite of Worcester, Massachusetts, and of Rhode Island, and the bituminous coal of the New Red sandstone. A list of peat bogs, with reference to their possible availability for fuel, was also given. Building stones were discussed, and two pages devoted to the subject of rock decay and its probable cause. Metallic and nonmetallic ores were described.

Many of the views expressed in the early reports were repeated here with but slight modification. He still adhered to his six distinct systems of strata which were tilted at various epochs. The oldest, called the meridional system, embraced all the primary rocks lying between the valleys of the Connecticut and Worcester. The second, or northeast and southwest system, included the gneiss range in the southeastern part of Worcester County, the central part of Middlesex, and a part of Essex. The third, or east and west system, included the gneiss around New Bedford, the graywacke, and a large part of the syenite, porphyry, and greenstone of the State. The fourth, or Hoosac Mountain system, embraced all the rocks between the Connecticut and Hudson rivers, except the trap and New Red sandstone. The fifth included the New Red sandstone, and the sixth, or northwest and southeast system of rocks, mainly gneiss occurring in the southern part of the State bordering upon Rhode Island. In the geological map which accompanied this report he employed but six colors, which marked off the rocks of the State into six distinct groups, the members of each of which, with the exception of the fourth, were so nearly related that he thought they might be regarded as belonging to the same formation. In his first group he placed the granite, syenite, greenstone, and porphyry; in the second, gneiss and the associated hornblende slate and quartz rock; in the third, mica slate, with the associated quartz rock and hornblende slate, talcose slate, and chlorite slate; in the fourth, limestone, steatite, and serpentine; in the fifth, metamorphic slates, graywacke, argillaceous slate,

coal measures, and the New Red sandstone, and in the sixth group, Eocene Tertiary, diluvium, and alluvium.

Hitchcock described the Connecticut as flowing through a synclinal valley, a valley which became nearly filled by the red sandstone deposit. This last, he thought, had since been eroded away, so that the valley as it now exists may "in some sense" be considered "as a valley of denudation." Most of the valleys in Massachusetts he still regarded as valleys due "to the elevation and dislocation of the strata."

He noted that the animal remains found in the older rocks differed the most radically from the existing species, and also that the organic remains found in northern portions of the globe corresponded more nearly to existing tropical species than did those now living in the same localities. Further than this, he announced that different species, genera, and families of animals began their existence at very different epochs in the earth's history, and that the same species rarely extended over from one formation into another. Notwithstanding this, though giving lists of fossils found in rocks of various horizons, he made no attempt to determine their relative ages by means of them and regarded correlation by such aids as impossible. Following Phillips and Lyell in many of his statements, he yet announced as a principle that "Rocks agreeing in their fossil contents may not have been contemporaneous in their deposition," although they might not differ greatly in age. "From all that has been advanced," he wrote, "it appears that an identity of organic remains is not alone sufficient to prove a complete chronological identity of the rocks widely separated from each other; but it will show an approximate identity as to the period of their deposition, and in regard to rocks in a limited district it will show complete identity." Where both the mineral nature and the character of fossils were identical, identity or synchronism would be much more probable, but a want of such agreement, so far as it related to mineral character, was not regarded as fatal to the idea of synchronism.

He argued against the idea that the stratified primary rocks are merely the detrital or fossiliferous rocks altered by heat, but regarded them rather as products of both mechanical and chemical action by aqueous and igneous agencies when the temperature of the crust was very high and before organic beings could live upon it.

He noted that the dolomitic rocks seemed genetically related to the limestones, but his ideas as to the methods by which the changes had been brought about were naturally somewhat crude when considered in the light of to-day. From a study of the field relations of the dolomites of Berkshire County and other localities he came to the conclusion "that all the cases of dolomitization in Massachusetts occur either in the vicinity of a fault, or of unstratified rocks, or in the midst of gneiss, where the evidences of the powerful action of heat in the induration of the limestone and the obliteration of its stratification is

as great as results from the presence of unstratified rocks." The actual dolomitization he thought to have been "probably produced by gaseous sublimations, chiefly of carbonate of magnesia, which penetrated the rock after it had been softened by heat so as to be permeable.[a] In some instances, however, he thought it highly probable that magnesian limestone had been deposited directly from thermal waters.

In seeking an explanation of the fact that in passing from the top of Hoosac Mountain toward the Hudson River one continually meets newer and newer rocks which always appear to pass under the older—in other words, that there is inversion of the strata—he came to the conclusion, put forward with some hesitation, "that these rocks have actually been thrown over into an inverted position, or rather, have been so contorted by a force acting laterally that one or more folded axes have been produced."

The same feature had been mentioned in his report for 1835, but then appeared "too improbable to be admitted." His views on the subject were illustrated by a sketch, copied in fig. 22; the portion above the heavy continuous black line being conceived to have been removed by erosion. Later this observation was claimed to be the first recognition of the true character of overturned folds. This was, however, disputed by H. D. Rogers, who claimed to have made and published similar observations during the progress of the New Jersey survey in 1838–39.

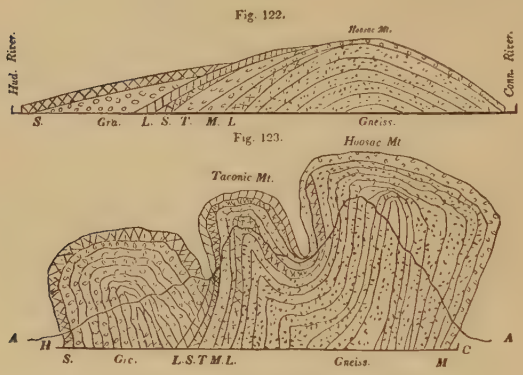


FIG. 22.—Folded axes. (After E. Hitchcock.)

Below is the paragraph upon which the claim of Rogers was apparently based. The statement is made in the course of a description of the various axes of elevation that have given rise to the more prominent physical features of northern New Jersey.

> The movement which elevated Jenny Jump, seems to have been everywhere one of excessive suddenness and violence, as the strata along its anticlinal axis are not only frequently much dislocated and broken, but those lying immediately along its northwestern base are in several places thrown into an inverted posture, dipping not to the northwest, but in toward the base of the hill.[b]

[a] This is probably a reflection of views earlier put forward by Von Buch with reference to the dolomites of the Tyrol.

[b] Geology of New Jersey, 1840, p. 55.

The idea was, however, brought out much more clearly in a communication made by him before the Association of American Geologists and Naturalists in 1841, an abstract of which was given in their Proceedings and in the American Journal of Science for the same year. He then called attention to the "inverted dip" observable among the rocks of the Coal Measures (of Pennsylvania) and ascribed the same to a great force acting laterally, folding and crushing the axis so as to produce this inverted dip by tossing the strata many degrees beyond the perpendicular, thus producing the present apparent dip of the lower stratified or sedimentary rocks beneath the primary.

In view of the observations made by Eaton in 1820, Steel, in 1825, and W. B. Rogers, in Virginia, in 1838, as noted elsewhere, the subject of priority between the two first named is scarcely worth discussing.

Heavy demands have from a very early time been made upon electric currents to account for all sorts of geological phenomena, from the formation of ore deposits to the production of slaty cleavage, or even the uplifting of mountain ranges. It is not strange, therefore, that Doctor Hitchcock should have felt justified in making slight draft upon it to help him over some of his minor difficulties. The peculiar imitative and otherwise interesting forms assumed by the ferruginous concretions found in the Connecticut Valley demanded an explanation. "I know of no agent," he wrote, "that could have accomplished this (i. e., the separation of the iron from the menstruum which held it in solution) except galvanic electricity," and again, "I strongly suspect galvanism to have been a chief agent in concretions of every sort."

In the report of 1833, and again in those of 1835 and 1841, Hitchcock called attention to the peculiarly flattened and otherwise distorted pebbles in the conglomerate at what is locally known as Purgatory, near Newport, Rhode Island. His description is important in view of his subsequent writings and the discussions which arose in connection therewith. The subject may, however, well go over until his later paper of 1861 (see p. 510).

This final report, coming at the time it did, naturally attracted much attention and favorable comment. From a brief preliminary review in the American Journal of Science the following paragraph is selected:

> If we reflect that the vast mass of facts and information of various descriptions, and the reasonings and inferences contained in these columns, are all the result of untiring, nay, almost Herculean, efforts of an individual mind, continued among the harassments of constant professional duty during a period of ten years, we are encouraged to hope that we may yet see the day when the united efforts of our small army of working geologists now laboring in the common cause shall reduce the whole of our widespread territory to an intelligible perfect system.

Although our sketches have thus far been confined largely to Americans, either by birth or adoption, the times with which we are

now dealing will scarcely permit us to overlook the explorations of Jean N. Nicollet throughout the Middle West.

Sketch of Nicollet.

Nicollet was born in France in 1790 and came to America in 1832 from purely financial considerations, having involved not merely his own fortune but those of friends in unfortunate speculations. His main scientific work up to this date had been of an astronomical nature, and it is perhaps natural that his attention in a new country should have turned toward exploration and map making.

Nicollet's Work in America, 1833.

From 1833 to 1838 he was engaged, with the cooperation of the War Department, though without financial assistance, in mapping the region of the upper Mississippi. From 1838 to 1841 he was in the employ of the Government, completing the surveys and maps thus begun. Other work of like nature was projected, but before plans were matured his health gave way and he died in 1843. His geological work, under the conditions mentioned above, was therefore of comparatively slight importance, excepting as calling attention to regions as yet but little explored.

He claimed to have traced the Cliff limestone of Owen over a vast extent of country in the Mississippi Valley, and connecting his own work with that of Owen, Locke, H. King, and others, felt justified in assigning the Falls of St. Anthony as the northern limit of the formation. In this he was correct. He added to the knowledge of the geology of the region of the Sioux and Missouri rivers by bringing in important Cretaceous fossils, both vertebrate and invertebrate in their nature; described the occurrence of the Indian pipestone (Catlinite) of the Coteau des Prairies of Minnesota, and correctly described the pseudovolcanoes and their pumice-like product as due to burning lignite beds.

The second American edition of Bakewell's Geology, from the fourth London edition, was printed, as was the first, in New Haven and under Silliman's supervision. The work needs notice here, as it shows Silliman's gradually expanding views and disposition to shake off the shackles of tradition, though still floundering in the deep waters of the Noachian deluge. Of particular interest are his remarks on the nature of geological evidence and its consistency with sacred history.

Second American Edition of Bakewell's Geology, 1833.

Silliman took the ground that there was no reason to believe that any part of the crust of the earth is now in the same condition as first created, every portion having been worked over in accordance with physical laws which are as much the Creator's work as are the materials upon which they operate. Unlike some of his predecessors and contemporaries, he did not, however, at this time feel it incumbent upon him to close his eyes to, or even to distort, any evidence that might present itself in order that it might not conflict with the state-

ment of sacred history. "Any attempt to disprove the truth or genuineness of the Pentateuch, and Genesis in particular, is wholly superfluous, and quite aside from any question that can in this age be at issue between geologists." "No geologist at the present day erects any system upon the basis of the scripture history." But admitting that the Mosaic history is genuine and true, he felt that one might with historical and philosophical propriety compare geology with history and regard historical coincidence with observed phenomena as interesting, "because they are mutually adjuvant and confirmatory." As with other workers, including even some of the present time, he found most that is confirmatory in a study of the drift or "diluvial," which was naturally ascribed to torrential action, and perhaps concomitant with the universal deluge recorded in Genesis. After a somewhat prolonged discussion of the meaning of the term "days," as used in Genesis, he gave the following:

Table of coincidences between the order of events as described in Genesis and that unfolded by geological investigations.

In Genesis.	No.	Discovered by geology.
Gen. I. 1, 2. In the beginning God created the heavens and the earth. And the earth was without form and void; and darkness was upon the face of the deep; and the Spirit of God moved upon the face of the waters.	1	It is impossible to deny that the waters of the sea have formerly, and for a long time, covered those masses of matter which now constitute our highest mountains;
3, 4, 5. Creation of light. 6, 7, 8. Creation of the expansion or atmosphere. 9, 10. Appearance of the dry land.	2	and, further, that these waters, during a long time, did not support any living bodies.—Cuvier's Theory of the Earth, sect. 7.
11, 12, 13. Creation of shooting plants, and of seed-bearing herbs and trees.	3	1. Cryptogamous plants in the coal strata.—Many observers. 2. Species of the most perfect developed class, the Dicotyledonous, already appear in the period of the secondary formations, and the first traces of them can be shown in the oldest strata of the secondary formation; while they uninterruptedly increase in the successive formations.—Prof. Jameson's remarks on the Ancient Flora of the Earth.
14 to 19. Sun, moon, and stars made to be for signs and for seasons, and for days, and for years.		

Table of coincidences between the order of events as described in Genesis and that unfolded by geological investigations—Continued.

In Genesis.	No.	Discovered by geology.
20. Creation of the inhabitants of the waters.	4	Shells in Alpine and Jura limestone.—Humboldt's tables. Fish in Jura limestone.—Humboldt's tables. Teeth and scales of fish in Tilgate sandstone.—Mr. Mantell.
Creation of flying things.	5	Bones of birds in Tilgate sandstone.—Mr. Mantell, Geological Transactions, 1826. Elytra[a] of winged insects in calcareous slate, at Stonesfield.—Mr. Mantell.
21. The creation of great reptiles.	6	It will be impossible not to acknowledge as a certain truth the number, the largeness, and the variety of the reptiles which inhabited the seas or the land at the epoch in which the strata of Jura were deposited.—Cuvier's Ossem. Foss. There was a period when the earth was peopled by oviparous quadrupeds of the most appalling magnitude. Reptiles were the lords of creation.—Mr. Mantell.
24, 25. Creation of the mammalia.	7	Bones of mammiferous land quadrupeds, found only when we come up to the formations above the coarse limestone, which is above the chalk.[b]—Cuvier's Theory, sect. 20.
26, 27. Creation of man.....	8	No human remains among extraneous fossils.—Cuvier's Theory, sect. 32. But found covered with mud in caves of Bize.—Journal.
Genesis, VII. The flood of Noah, 4,200 years ago.	9	The crust of the globe has been subjected to a great and sudden revolution, which can not be dated much farther back than five or six thousand years ago.—Cuvier's Theory, 32, 33, 34, 35, and Buckland's Reliq. Diluv.

[a] Sheaths.

[b] One solitary exception is since discovered, in the calcareous slate of Stonesfield, in the bones of a didelphis, an opossum, a tribe whose position may be held intermediate between the oviparous and mammiferous races.

Perhaps that part of Professor Silliman's work which showed the keenest insight into geological problems is that relating to the subject of crystallization in rocks. The proximate causes of the phenomenon were recognized as heat and solution.

There is no doubt that fire and water * * * have operated in all ages in producing mineral crystallization. Of these, however, fire appears to have been by far the most active, * * * and there is every reason to admit that even granite has been melted in the bowels of the earth, and therefore may crystallize from a state of

igneous fusion. If this be true of the proper crystals of granite it may be also true of the imbedded crystals which it contains, and therefore of all other crystals. Those which contain much water of crystallization may present a serious difficulty, but perhaps pressure may have retained the water, and as the parts of the mineral concreted in cooling the molecules of water may have taken their place in the regular solid. Still we can see no reason for excluding water and other dissolving agents, acting with intense energy under vast pressure and at the heat of even high ignition, from playing a very important part in crystallization. (Pp. 433–434.)

This, it will be observed, is essentially the aqueo-igneous theory of eruptive rocks, and could scarcely be improved on to-day. In this connection it is well to remember that Edward Hitchcock, in his Geology of Massachusetts, 1833 (see p. 309), inferred the igneous origin of granite from its crystalline structure, "since substances held in solution always crystallize in succession, while in granite we have a solid crystalline mass of three or four distinct substances which evidently crystallized contemporaneously."

The tendency to generalize on insufficient data is evidently inherent in the human race, and it was to be expected that it should early make its appearance in so promising a field for speculation as geology. It was therefore not surprising that Eaton, after his many years of study in the eastern United States, should have ventured opinions concerning the little-known West. Basing his statements on observations made by a Mr. John Ball, at one time a student of his, he wrote in 1834:

Eaton's Notions Regarding the Rocky Mountains, 1834.

The geology of the country west of the Rocky Mountains is remarkably simple and uniform. The general underlying rock is the red sandstone, which some English geologists call Saliferous rock, and which characterizes the red sandstone group of De La Beche. It is the same which contains the salt springs of the western part of the State of New York, and which underlies the basaltic rocks (greenstone trap) of Connecticut and Hudson rivers. * * * Wherefore the geology of the east and west sides of the Rocky Mountains is remarkably alike. Mr. Ball says the Rocky Mountains rises up from the midst, as it were, of a horizontal sea of red sandstone, as if some tremendous force had driven it upward, like an island forced up from the depths of the ocean. * * * Mr. Ball considers almost the whole country as volcanic * * * near the west side of the Rocky Mountains. * * * Mr. Ball found first graywacke and sparry lime rock. But he soon entered upon the red sandstone region, which continues as the basis rock to the Pacific. * * * The country is often very mountainous along the route to the Pacific, but the mountains are red sandstone, grey pudding stone, or basalt. Such is the simplicity and uniformity of the geology of the vast region west of the Rocky Mountains that it can all be told in one sentence of six lines.

It may be well to add that Mr. Ball himself took exception to some of the conclusions drawn by Professor Eaton, and later published in the same journal his own views on the subject. These may, however, be passed over here without comment.

The two most important original contributions of the year 1833 were Hitchcock's Massachusetts, already noted, and Isaac Lea's Contributions to Geology, the latter dealing with the Tertiary of Alabama, Maryland, and New Jersey. In Lea's work there were brought prominently forward for the first time, by an American writer, the striking changes that had taken place in the introduction of the Tertiary fauna and the close relationship existing between that fauna and the fauna of the present day.

Lea's Contributions to Geology, 1833.

FIG. 23.—Isaac Lea.

Out of some two hundred and fifty species of invertebrates found by Doctor Lea in the bluffs at Claiborne, Alabama, two hundred and nineteen were not referable to any known species, i. e., were not found in any of the beds older than Tertiary and were new to science. It was in this work also that the undoubted presence in America of beds referable to the Eocene of Lyell was recognized, although the character of the fossils and the general position of the beds had been already noted by Conrad (p. 307).[a]

The last named, the year following, marked out the distribution of the Eocene in Maryland and noted the occurrence of Pliocene fossils overlying it at Vance's ferry on the Santee River. The Fort Washington beds, formerly regarded by him as Eocene, he now suggested to be more recent than Lea's Claiborne beds, and perhaps contemporaneous with the Miocene of Europe.

Conrad on the Distribution of the Eocene, 1834.

In 1834 there was organized the Geological Society of Pennsylvania. According to its constitution:

> The objects of the society are declared to be to ascertain as far as possible the nature and structure of the rock formations of the State; their connection or comparison with the other formations in the United States and of the rest of the world; the fossils they contain, their nature, positions, and associations, and particularly the uses to which they can be applied in the arts, and their subserviency to the comforts and conveniences of man.

Organization of the Geological Society of Pennsylvania, 1834.

This society continued in existence but four years, but served its apparent purpose in bringing about the establishment, in 1836, of the State geological survey with H. D. Rogers at its head. A single

[a] This publication of Lea's led to a misunderstanding with Conrad, or rather with Conrad's friends, Say and Morton, who felt that Doctor Lea was invading Conrad's rights. Doctor Lea, however, worked only on material he had received from Judge Tait, prior to Conrad's entry upon the field. (See Dall's Determination of Dates of Publication of Conrad's Fossils of the Tertiary Formations. Bulletin of the Philosophical Society of Washington, XII, 1893, pp. 215–240.)

volume, in two parts, of "Transactions," numbering upward of 400 pages, tells the story of its brief existence. This contains papers by authors now for the most part little known. R. C. Taylor wrote on fucoids and the coal fields of Pennsylvania and Virginia, his papers being accompanied by numerous sections; James Dickson had an Essay on the Gold Region of the United States, all comprised within the limits of 16 pages; Jacob Green had a paper on a Sulphated Ferruginous Earth, and a Description of a New Trilobite from Nova Scotia. Others were by Richard Harlan, Gerard Troost, Thomas Clemsen, and H. Koehler. Few of the writers or active members achieved other reputation than that given by the single publication, though Taylor became an authority on coal, while Harlan and Troost became later widely known, the one as a vertebrate paleontologist and the other as a geologist. This society, it is well to note, was the second geological society to be organized in America, the first being that at New Haven in 1819.

William Aiken's Ideas on Mountain Uplift, 1834.

A brief paper by William Aiken, professor of natural philosophy and chemistry in Mount St. Mary's College, Maryland, published in the American Journal of Science at this time, is worthy of some consideration as bearing upon the prevailing theories regarding mountain uplift and incidental phenomena. Professor Aiken wrote on the geology of the country between Baltimore and the Ohio River, and gave a section showing the inclination and kinds of rocks.

The classification conformed with that prevailing at the time, the rocks being divided into (1) a primitive series in the immediate vicinity of Baltimore, (2) the transition slates, sandstones, and conglomerates of the adjacent county, and (3) the lower secondary rocks of the West.

Noting the reversal of the dip existing between Hancock and Cumberland, he wrote: "Beneath this space, then, we are authorized, in concluding, the eruptive power that was instrumental in upheaving the Appalachian chain was most energetically exerted. This may be considered the true anticlinal region." He regarded the agent so efficient in throwing up mountain chains as igneous, "an opinion that gains confirmation, if any is needed, from the occurrence of thermal waters along the center line of the Allegheny region." It is apparent from this that he agreed with Daubeny and other European geologists as to the volcanic origin of these springs. Roger's paper, ascribing them to the other causes, did not appear until eight years later (see page 372.)

Ducatel and Alexander's Survey of Maryland, 1834.

In accordance with a resolution passed by the general assembly of Maryland, February 25, 1834, J. T. Ducatel, geologist, and J. H. Alexander, a civil engineer, were appointed to make a geological survey and new map of the State. This survey continued in existence until 1840, during which time three annual reports, one on the outlines and physical geography of

Maryland, one on the new map of Maryland, and one on the Frostburg coal formation, were issued, the latter, however, not being an official publication.

The geological reports were given up largely to a discussion of economic matters, such as the character of the soil and the occurrence of coal and ores of the metals. In the report for 1833 the occurrence of fossiliferous deposits in Prince George County; at Maryland Point, in Charles County; and on St. Mary's River, in St. Mary's County; also at Fort Washington on the Potomac, were noted, but none of the fossils were identified nor any suggestion made as to their probable geological age, although that portion of Maryland was later referred to as being occupied by Tertiary rocks. The rocks comprising the upper part of Cecil County, the greater portion of Baltimore and Harford counties, the upper districts of Anne Arundel County, and the whole of Montgomery County, were thought to be generally metalliferous and were grouped as primary or primitive. The serpentinous rocks were looked upon as of importance, as likely to furnish the basis for the manufacture of epsom salts, a not uncommon opinion at that time. On the map prepared under the direction of Mr. Alexander the lithological nature of the underlying rocks and the character of the soil were indicated by names, no attempt being made at coloring.

In 1835 Ducatel visited the Eastern Shore of Maryland and in his report for that year gave a very full account of the geography and agricultural condition of Dorchester, Somerset, and Worcester counties. He announced the presence there of considerable deposits of greensand marl, which he believed would be of great value to the agriculturist. In 1836 he completed the geological survey of Calvert County and made extensive examinations in Anne Arundel, Prince George, Charles, and St. Mary's counties, where he found further deposits of marl. In this same year he examined the coal and iron deposits of Allegany County and published a geological account and section of the beds.

In his report for 1838 he gave a general account of the mineral resources of Harford County and outlines of the geology of Harford and Baltimore counties, with a short treatise on the subject of lime burning.

This survey was regarded by Ducatel as being the first attempt to connect a topographic and geological survey.

Ducatel was born in Baltimore, where his father, a Frenchman, conducted for many years a prominent pharmaceutical establishment. He received his early training at St. Mary's College in Baltimore, subsequently studying in Paris. In 1824 he returned to America, and shortly after entered upon a very successful career as a teacher of the sciences—chemistry, philosophy, mineralogy, and geology—serving in the Mechanic's Institute and the University of Maryland in Baltimore, and St. John's College in Annapolis.

Sketch of Ducatel.

In order that he might devote himself more fully to the work of the survey, he severed his connection with the institutions of learning about 1838. The move, however, proved an unfortunate one, as the survey was shortlived and he was thrown back upon his own resources.

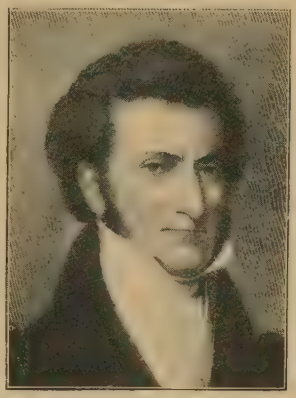


FIG. 24.—Julius Timoleon Ducatel.

In 1846 he visited, in the capacity of a geological expert, the Lake Superior mining regions. Through exposure while there he contracted a severe illness, which left him in an enfeebled condition from which he never fully recovered. He died from congestion of the lungs in 1849.

Ducatel is represented to us as a man of generous traits and of winning character, ardent and enterprising. Physically he was short in stature, with square shoulders, black eyes, dark complexion, and face strongly pitted by smallpox. He bent forward and walked with a nervous, energetic step, which betokened the ceaseless activity of one accustomed to work and think for himself.

Few publications bear his name, though as a writer for the journals of the day he is said to have been quite prolific. His principal work was a Manual of Toxicology, which, it is stated, was well received.

In July, 1834, G. W. Featherstonhaugh, who was introduced to the reader on page 301, was authorized by Lieut. Col. J. J. Abert, acting under instructions of the War Department, to make a geological and mineralogical survey of the "elevated country lying between the Missouri River and Red River, known under the designation of the Ozark Mountains."[a] The survey was duly made and a report rendered bearing the date of February 17, 1835. This comprised altogether 97 pages, the first 42 of which were given up mainly to a discussion of general principles not germane to the report at all, but which, as indicating the condition of mind of the writer, are worthy of consideration. He regarded the continents and islands as having originated through an expansive subterranean force, and believed the mineral veins to have been filled from below, rather than from above, as taught by Werner.

Featherstonhaugh's Survey, 1834.

Granite was regarded as an igneous rock, and designated as "igniferous." Gneiss he recognized as often passing into granite, while some of the primary limestones he thought to have possibly "come from central parts of the earth, in a state of aqueous solution, and to have subsequently received their high crystalline character from being in contact with igniferous rocks in an incandescent state." To the com-

[a] This appears to have been the first formal recognition of the science of geology by the General Government.

monly received opinion, that all coal resulted from vegetable matter, he took exception, and thought that some beds "may have been the result of outpourings of bituminous matter." The wide geographical distribution of Carboniferous rocks west of the Appalachians and in the Mississippi Valley was noted, and a section given comprising 1,520 vertical feet of these rocks and overlying shale and millstone grit, at Burkesville, Kentucky.

Passing to the specific part of the work, Featherstonhaugh discussed the occurrence of the lead ore (galena), its distribution in loose pieces in the soil, and its relation to the vein material in the solid rock, but the fact that this superficial layer was but the detritus from the decomposition of the underlying rock does not seem to have been realized more than by his predecessors. He remarked, however, that the disseminated granules in the limestone, as at Isle La Motte, furnished to the eye "sufficient proof that the stony and metallic matter were deposited at the same time," an idea not altogether different from that held to-day. Further on he noted the occurrence of the ore in pockets or cavities filled with red clay as pointing "to a projection of this metallic or mineral matter from below."

He described the hematite deposit of Pilot Knob, Missouri, and correctly noted the improbability of finding precious metals in Arkansas in paying quantities. Magnet Cove he regarded as having been perhaps "one of those extremely ancient craters that may have preceded those of which basalt and lava are the products."

Although Featherstonhaugh's standing with his fellow-geologists does not seem to have been the best, some of his recorded observations certainly show a more philosophical mind and greater ability to grasp the broader problems of geology than do those of many of his contemporaries. Thus, discussing the muddy character of the Mississippi, he suggested that experiments might be conducted to show the amount of sediment annually brought down, whereby we might approximately assign a chronological period for the origin of the river, the commencement of the alluvial deposits, and the withdrawal of the ocean. This, so far as the present writer is aware, is the first suggestion of its kind to be made.

Commenting on the fact announced by him in 1828 and since confirmed, that, with the exception of the Tertiary and sub Cretaceous beds of the coast, no rocks more recent than the coal-bearing series had been found in the United States, he suggested that the American continent might in reality be older than the European. This also is the first suggestion of its kind to be found in our literature.

The report was accompanied by a colored geological section extending from the Atlantic at New Jersey to the Red River in Texas. On this all New Jersey and Delaware as far as Chesapeake Bay were colored as occupied by superficial sand and sub-Cretaceous beds; Mary-

land to the west of the Potomac mainly by primary granites, gneiss, and slate, with a narrow band of transition limestone; Virginia by transition limestone overlaid in part by graywacke; Tennessee by graywacke overlaid at the Cumberland Mountains by Carboniferous limestone; Kentucky, Indiana, and Illinois by Carboniferous limestone; Missouri and Arkansas by Carboniferous limestone capped by calcareo-siliceous hills, and Arkansas, from a point about midway between the Fourche and Arkansas rivers, by graywacke capped by Old Red sandstone and occasional Tertiary deposits, with sub-Cretaceous beds beginning again at the Caddo River and extending nearly to the Red River in Texas, where they were covered by a ferruginous sandstone. It was a reprint of this section in the Transactions of the Geological Society of Pennsylvania that Lesley referred to in his Historical Sketch of Geological Explorations as "a rambling description and a worthless geological section across the continent from New York to Texas."

In 1835 Featherstonhaugh, again under instructions from Lieutenant-Colonel Abert, made a geological reconnaissance of the region lying between the seat of government and the Coteau des Prairies, by way of Green Bay and the Wisconsin Territory. His report, issued in 1836, formed Senate Document No. 333, comprising 168 pages, with 4 plates of sections and diagrams. In this, as in his first, there is a large amount of preliminary matter of a very general nature. He noted that Washington and Georgetown were underlaid by gneiss, in which were perceived evidences of an "extensive anticlinal movement by which all the rocks along the entire length of the Potomac," as high up as the great bituminous field, had been affected, and that the true dip of the rocks was often "contradicted by the cleavage." This was a by no means unimportant observation. The erosive action of the river, as manifested by potholes in the schists at Great Falls, was dwelt upon and the Seneca sandstone and Potomac breccia described, the former noted as often carrying anthracite and casts of calamites, but no suggestion as to the geological age of the beds was given. The Catoctin Mountains were described as "composed of primary slates, sandstones, and quartz having a northeast direction." Referring to the relationship existing between the Potomac breccia and the limestones, slates, and shales, he wrote:

> We thus have all the proofs that the Atlantic primary chain has come up from below through the limestone, triturating and breaking it up into fragments of every size, which were subsequently transported to the east of the chain by a current from the west, and deposited there, intermixed with the decomposed red shale.

He concluded, therefore, that the Atlantic primary chain was elevated posterior to the deposition of the limestone, "which may be considered the equivalent of the lowest beds of Mr. Murchison's Silurian rocks." The unsymmetrical character of the folded sandstones and grits at Wills Creek, in Maryland, he described as affording

evidence "that all the beds had been bent up by some action from below, and that from some inequality in the action or from some external cause the bed on which they lay, together with its associated strata, had collapsed toward the center in such a manner that they would appear to have been thrown up into a vertical position, if the uncurvated part had been concealed."

In remarking on the constancy of the phenomena connected with the anticlinal arrangement of the whole series of Allegheny ridges, he ascribed their origin to an elevatory undulating movement, whereby "some parts of the strata were forced up into the anticlinal form, in a constant magnetic direction," the intervening distance between each axis or ridge being at the same time probably thrown down in a ruinous state. As the land arose and the waters retired the ruins would gradually be borne away, leaving the valleys as we now find them.

The extensive bituminous coal beds of Maryland and Pennsylvania were described, the coal itself considered as due to plant growth in situ, and not to drift.

The presence of Carboniferous limestone about 8 miles from Navarino, Wisconsin, was noted and also, but erroneously, at the Falls of St. Anthony, in Minnesota. The lead-bearing beds of Dubuque, Iowa, were also judged, by their fossils, to be Carboniferous. In this, also, he was in error.

In 1835 there was organized under the authority of the legislature of New Jersey a State geological survey, of which Prof. H. D. Rogers was made chief. The survey continued until 1839, the final report, a volume of some 300 pages and a colored geological map, bearing the date 1840, the first annual report being issued in 1836. In this final report Rogers argued that nearly the whole surface of the region occupied by the counties of Middlesex, Monmouth, Burlington, Gloucester, Salem, and Cape May was at some former period upon a level with the top of the surrounding hills, as shown by the finding of sandstone strata always at about the same elevation and in the horizontal position in which it was deposited. These hills he regarded as hills of denudation, that is to say, as formed by the washing away or laying naked of the strata which formed the surface of the region about them; but, looking at the matter, as he did, through the eyes of a catastrophist, he was unable to say "from what quarter the mighty rush of waters proceeded which swept off so extensive a part of the upper rocks."

Rogers's Survey of New Jersey, 1835.

In view of the great difference of opinion which has existed and still exists in the minds of geologists regarding the age of the white limestone near Franklin Furnace, New Jersey, it is not without interest to note that Rogers himself regarded it as having been originally the blue limestone of the district invaded at some period by mineral veins

in a highly heated or molten state, whereby was effected a series of changes similar to those known to be caused by injections of trap into similar strata.

In his final report Rogers divided the rock formations of the northern division of the State into, first, a group of primary rocks confined to the islands and the vicinity of Trenton; second, a group of older secondary strata confined to the northwestern portions of Sussex and Warren counties, and third, a group of middle secondary strata lying in the broad belt of country between the southeastern foot of the Highlands and the boundary connecting Trenton and New Brunswick. With this third group he also connected the trap rocks of the region.

The occurrence of graphite in the altered rocks near Sparta, remote from igneous dikes, and its nonoccurrence in more than very trivial quantities adjacent to the dikes, he looked upon as strongly implying that it had been derived "from the elements of the blue limestone itself, which may easily be proved to contain an adequate quantity of iron and carbon for the production of this mineral."

The great thickness throughout which this limestone had undergone crystallization, apparently from the heating agency of the dikes which traversed it, and the law which he traced in the development of some of the minerals, afforded, as he felt, unquestionably strong support to the theory that gneiss and other primary strata had once been sedimentary rocks, converted by an intense and widespread igneous action into a universally crystalline state.

The presence of carbonate of copper diffused throughout the fissures of the shales indicated to his mind that a considerable portion of the metalliferous material, particularly the carbonate, had entered the strata in a gaseous or volatile condition and not in that of igneous fusion. The iron and zinc deposits, on the other hand, were "unequivocally genuine lodes or veins" filled with "matter injected while in a fused or molten state" and not beds formed contemporaneously with the surrounding rock.

It may be recalled that in 1820 Professor Bakewell visited the Falls of Niagara, and on his return to England published in the London Magazine a short memoir, in which he endeavored to show that the falls were once at Queenstown. In the autumn of 1846 he again visited the falls and made the additional observation that the river at one time probably flowed through the ancient gravel-filled valley extending from the Whirlpool to St. Davids. In this subsequent research has shown he was eminently correct. Nevertheless, his observations at the time were not wholly accepted.

Rogers's Views on the Gorge at Niagara, 1835.

In 1834 a Mr. Fairholme, writing in the London and Edinburgh Philosophical Magazine, accepted Bakewell's views as expressed in

1820 and put forward certain of his own relating to the rate of back-cutting of the falls. To these views H. D. Rogers, in the American Journal of Science for 1835, took serious exception. He believed that the channel below the falls had been formed in part as a diluvial valley and by some far-sweeping currents which denuded the entire surface of North America and strewed its plains and mountains with bowlders, gravel, and soil from the north. "The passage of such a body of water over the surface would deeply indent all the exposed portions of the land. Rushing in a descent from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario, from a higher to a lower plain, and across a slope like that at Queenstown, it would inevitably leave a long ravine." Commenting on this, Silliman remarked in the same journal that an earthquake might possibly be instrumental in producing at once such a crack in the strata as would drain the lakes in a few days or hours, and to such an agency might be ascribed the channel in question. (See Hall's paper, p. 384.)

Sketch of H. D. Rogers.

Rogers was born in Philadelphia in 1808, being one of four brothers—James B., William B., Henry D., and Robert Empie—all of whom rose to distinction as geologists or chemists. When not quite twenty-two years of age he became professor of chemistry and natural philosophy in Dickinson College, resigning in 1831 for the purpose of going to Europe to complete his studies. He returned to Philadelphia in 1833, and in the ensuing winter delivered courses of lectures on chemistry in the hall of Franklin Institute.

In 1835 he was elected professor of geology and mineralogy in the University of Pennsylvania, and was also appointed by the legislature in the same year to make a geological survey of the State of New Jersey, as already mentioned. In 1836 he was made State geologist of Pennsylvania, and it is upon the work done in this connection that his fame as a geologist chiefly rests.

In 1857 he was made regius professor of natural history in the University of Glasgow, being the first American to thus receive a foreign appointment. As was the case with his brother, W. B. Rogers, he was a good lecturer, with quiet, gentlemanly bearing, never failing to make a favorable impression upon his audience.

His work in Pennsylvania showed not merely great administrative ability, but also the power of mastering fully the observations of his assistants, making therefrom important generalizations. He was unquestionably the leading structural geologist of his time. That his generalizations and the theories he deduced will not in all cases hold to-day in no way reflects upon his ability. In judging his work, as, indeed, judging that of any of his predecessors and contemporaries, one must take into consideration not merely the condition of knowledge at the time, but also the conditions under which they worked.

HENRY DARWIN ROGERS.
State Geologist of Pennsylvania.

One of the most unique figures in early American geology was that of Dr. James G. Percival. This man was born at Kensington, Connecticut, September 15, 1795, and graduated at Yale College in 1815, after which he studied medicine, receiving the degree of M. D. in 1820, and entering upon a troubled and, to his friends, troublesome career, which terminated only with his death in 1856.

J. G. Percival's Survey of Connecticut, 1835-1841.

He wrote poems, became editor of a newspaper, was a proof reader and assistant to Noah Webster in the preparation of his dictionary, and received a Government appointment as surgeon at West Point and afterwards with the recruiting service at Boston. But no form of practical work seemed suited to his taste, and he gave up position after position that he might devote himself to literature.

Peevish, often morbid and misanthropic to the point of insanity, and always complaining, truly such is queer material from which to make a geologist. "Slender of form, of narrow chest and with a peculiar stoop, a large, fine head, dark eyes, and inclined to sharpness of features; a wardrobe consisting of little more than a single plain suit—brown or gray—which he wore summer and winter until it became threadbare. He never wore gloves nor blacked his boots." Such is the picture held up to our view by his contemporaries.

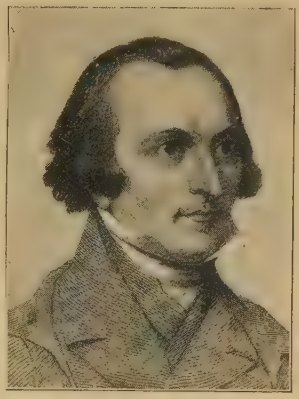


FIG. 25.—James Gates Percival.

A geological and mineralogical survey of Connecticut being organized in 1835, Percival was given charge of the geology and C. U. Shepard the mineralogy. Shepard's report appeared in 1837. It comprised all told some 188 pages, but was not accompanied by a map, sections, nor by figures of any kind.

Percival's report was long delayed, making its appearance finally in 1842. It would seem that the survey, when inaugurated, was expected to be but a superficial one, yet Percival was engaged upon it for five weary and laborious years, each year rendering his researches more minute, until he had collected over eight thousand specimens and made record of dips and bearings still more numerous. The legislators demanded a report, which was not forthcoming, and finally, in 1841, all appropriations were withheld and an abridged report published, much against Percival's wishes. This volume is beyond question one of the least interesting of any issued by any State. A dry mass of lithological details, with little or no discrimination between important and unimportant matters—no theories nor generalities. No one for a moment will question that Percival had been, as he claimed,

"laborious and diligent," yet the reader who searches from cover to cover for other facts than lithological characteristics, dip, and strike will search in vain. The fact that the trappean outbursts were not in straight and continuous lines, but curvilinear in form and occupying a series of nearly parallel fissures, was practically the only break in the monotony of detail. He wrote to a friend:

> I had twice surveyed the whole State on a regular plan of sections from east to west, reducing the intervals in the last survey to an average distance of 2 miles, thus passing along one side of each of the nearly 5,000 square miles of the State. * * * I had examined all objects of geological interest, particularly the rocks and their included minerals, with minute attention. I had scarcely passed a ledge or point of rock without particular examination.

Peevish and complaining, Percival evidently could not be made to understand why he should not be allowed to go on indefinitely, rendering a report when he himself should be satisfied of its correctness. With such a disposition the average country legislator naturally had no patience, and the abridged report, a volume of 495 pages, with an uncolored map, was finally printed in 1842, as already noted.

Though written by a poet, it is utterly lacking in imagination, and, aside from its dullness, remarkable only from the fact that it is stated to have been written largely from memory. The subjects considered, in the order given, were: First, the rocks or consolidated formations; second, the loose or unconsolidated formations; third, the soils; fourth, economic results, and fifth, the physical geography. The rocks were all classed under three heads: First, the primary; second, the secondary, and third, traps, the distinctions made being on almost purely lithological grounds.

In 1853 Percival was employed by the American Mining Company in exploring the lead mines of Illinois and Wisconsin, and in 1854 was appointed State geologist of Wisconsin, as noted elsewhere. He died in 1856.

In the American Journal of Science for 1836 S. P. Hildreth, later connected with the geological survey of Ohio, published what was, for its time, an important paper relative to the bituminous coal deposits of Ohio and the general geology of the Ohio Valley.

S. P. Hildreth's Work in Ohio, 1836.

Although Hildreth was inclined to indulge in speculations founded upon scanty data, his paper is, nevertheless, important for the numerous sections of the coal strata and as illustrating the condition of knowledge at that day relative to both coal and petroleum.

Hildreth was one of the first to recognize the enormous amount of subaerial erosion that had taken place throughout the region, and that the Ohio River had carved out its own channel. He felt, however, that in times past the precipitation had been much greater than at present, and the abrasion of the surface by rain and torrents much more rapid.

He thought to recognize in the Muskingum Valley Tertiary and Carboniferous rocks with New Red sandstone on the extreme southern border, while on the Clear Fork of the Little Muskingum he noted the occurrence of a white limestone which he erroneously assigned to the Lias.

Considerable attention was given to the "muriatiferous" rocks, and he noted the outcropping of a 5-foot bed of coal in the vicinity of the salt deposit as "evincing apparent design in Him who laid the foundations of the earth in the greater abundance of coal in those places where it would be the most useful," i. e., in the evaporation of brine for making salt. The occurrence of petroleum springs on the Little Kanawha he thus describes:

> By opening and loosening with a spade or sharpened stick, the gravel and sand * * * the oil rises to the surface of the water, with which the trench is partially filled. It is then skimmed off with a tin cup or some other suitable vessel, and put up in barrels for sale or domestic uses. In this way from 50 to 100 barrels are collected in a season, and much more could be gathered if demand required. In the adjacent hills is a thin bed of coal * * * but the source whence this petroleum flows must be deep in the earth, and the material which furnishes, vast in dimensions. The process is one of nature's hidden mysteries, carried on in her secret laboratory, far beyond the reach, and inaccessible to the curiosity of man.

FIG. 26.—Samuel Prescott Hildreth.

The occurrence of gas springs he also noted, and one in the center of an open tract, "given to the public by the liberality of Washington," who "viewed it as an interesting natural phenomenon which no parsimonious individual ought ever to appropriate to his own benefit," is described in some detail and the same reverential spirit. "There appears to be no diminution in the amount of gas from its first discovery to the present time. The same Almighty and liberal hand, which furnished the perennial fountains with water, having also provided this gaseous spring with the means of an exhaustless supply."

Hildreth's supposed discovery of the Liassic age of the white limestone, noted above, was later disputed by John Banister Gibson, chief justice of the supreme court of Pennsylvania, who claimed the credit for himself. Both were, however, in error, as shown by subsequent investigation.

Mather's Geological Survey of Ohio. 1836.

In 1836 there was organized the first geological survey of the State of Ohio, and W. W. Mather appointed chief geologist. The survey lasted two years, seeming to have fallen through on account of local jealousies. Two annual reports were issued, of 134 and 286 pages, respectively, both bearing date of 1838.

Mather's assistants were the S. P. Hildreth, just mentioned, who early resigned on account of ill health; J. P. Kirtland, Dr. John Locke, C. Briggs, jr., J. W. Foster, and Charles Whittlesey, the last named in charge of topographic work. Mather's own work was largely of an economic character, and he showed here as in his later work on the New York survey, a lack of discrimination or ability to judge of the comparative value of the different subjects with which he had to deal.

Hildreth's report must be read with a certain amount of allowance, since his ill health and consequent resignation precluded him from making certain possible modifications of his earlier statements. He described the occurrence of New Red sandstone, Lias, Oolite, etc., overlying the coal, and dwelt to a considerable extent upon the possible value of the buhrstone and also upon the salt springs.

Locke's report, comprising pages 201–286 in the second annual, was by far the most satisfactory, showing a much broader grasp of the general subject than that of any of his associates. He described the rocks below the coal formation as having evidently been deposited in the bed of a deep primitive ocean, though he failed to realize, or at least ignored, the value of the fossil remains in which the rocks abounded, his classification being wholly lithological. As pointed out by Orton, moreover, he failed to correlate the members of the series which he found with those of the same series elsewhere.

He noted the immense amount of drift material, and also the scratched and grooved surface of the underlying rock, describing it as "planished as if by the friction of some heavy body moving over it and marked by parallel grooves." He regarded such as having probably been formed by icebergs floating over the terrace and dragging gravel and bowlders frozen into their lower surface. In this he followed Hitchcock.

Briggs's reports, comprising some seventy pages of the first and second annuals, contained nothing of more than very local interest. A section was given showing the relative position and thickness of the strata in the counties of Wood, Crawford, Athens, Hocking, and Tuscarawas, but no attempt was made to refer them to any particular geological horizon, nor was the value of fossils recognized at all. In fact, there was but the briefest allusion to fossils, excepting as curiosities. This seems the more remarkable, in the case of Locke as well, when we consider that these regions are peculiarly prolific in invertebrate remains and the very important rôle such have since been made to play.

To Foster was assigned the geology of Muskingum County and parts of Licking and Franklin counties. He classified the rocks of the various formations of these regions as Alluvium, Tertiary, Coal Measures, fine-grained sandstone, shale, and Mountain limestone, and noted the presence of remains of a mastodon and a casteroides in the alluvium.

WILLIAM WILLIAMS MATHER.
Geologist of New York State Survey.

Whittlesey's results consisted of, first, a brief pamphlet of some eight pages, relative to the general topography of the State, and second, a report of seventy-one pages, in which he gave geological sections of the rocks from Cleveland to the southeast corner of the Western Reserve, with miscellaneous notes on the order of the strata and on coal, limestone, iron ores, mineral springs, etc.

The general results of the survey may be summed up as follows: The principal formations, as indicated, beginning with the oldest, are first, the great limestone deposit (Silurian and Devonian) which was erroneously regarded as equivalent to the Mountain or Carboniferous limestone of Europe. This was found in Adams County, extending thence to the western portion of the State. It was felt by Locke as not unreasonable to suppose that the particles composing it were once held in aqueous solution and subsequently deposited in tranquil waters along the bottom of the ocean. This may then have been consolidated by subterranean heat. Overlying this is a bed of shales (Upper Devonian) two or three hundred feet in thickness, black, fissile, and with a fetid odor. Next comes Waverly sandstone, the series being thus first named. Fourth, a conglomerate cropping out on the western border of the Coal Measures and varying in thickness from 80 to 100 feet. Fifth, a lower coal series, consisting of alternations of sandstone, shales, limestone, iron ores, and coals, some 300 feet in thickness. Sixth, buhrstone. Seventh, the upper coal series, made up of sandstones, shales, coal, iron ores, and limestones. Eighth, the Tertiary deposits, under which head he included the prairies or barrens in the western part of the State, and the pebble beds and bowlders of primitive rocks so abundant in some parts of the Scioto Valley; and ninth, the recent deposits, including as such those now forming along the river beds. The beds were noted as having generally but a slight dip and irregular undulations. Locke found near the boundary of Ohio and Indiana a summit level and an anticlinal axis from which the strata dipped in opposite directions, eastwardly in Ohio and westwardly in Indiana. This is apparently the first recognition of what has since become known as the Cincinnati Uplift.

Mather was educated at West Point, and from 1829 to 1835 was assistant professor of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology in the Military Academy. While there he published (1833) a text-book on geology, a miniature sixteen-mo. volume of some 139 pages, which seems to have been fairly well received at the time and is stated to have passed through several editions.[a] A photographic copy of one of the pages is given

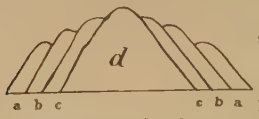
Sketch of Mather.

[a] He also published in 1834 a 36-page pamphlet entitled a Sketch of the Geology and Mineralogy of New London and Windham counties, in Connecticut, the same being accompanied by a colored geological map.

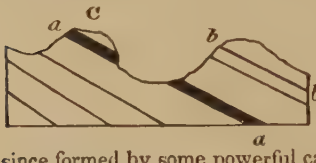
below to show the general character of the work and the now seeming crudity of the illustrations.[a]

STRATIFICATION. 35

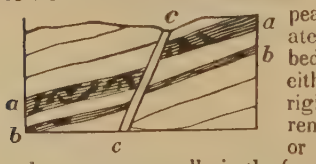
the strata appear to rest against the sides of the mountain masses; *d* being the mountain, and a a, b b, c c, similar strata of rocks.



There is another instance in which the strata may not terminate at their outcrop, but appear again in the opposite hill, as *a a*, but *b b*, by its prolongation, would pass over the hill *C*. Where the strata are nearly horizontal similar strata are almost always found on the opposite sides of a valley, as if they had been formerly continuous, and the valley since formed by some powerful cause.



There is another point in relation to stratification, (and it is also applicable to *veins*, in rocks that are not stratified,) that, from its practical importance in mining, should be well understood. The bed of coal, or vein of ore, appears suddenly to terminate. When this occurs, the bed may be found again, either above or below its original level. At its apparent termination, a fissure, or else a different kind of rock, occurs, generally in the form of a vein, as *c c*. Repeated observation has shown, that if, at the apparent termination, the rock cutting it off inclines towards you, so as to project over your head, the bed of coal, or other mineral, lies at a lower level on the other side of *c c*, as though the mass of strata on one side of the vein had slid down to a lower level. In the figure, *a a* and *b b* repre-



Does the same stratum ever appear on the opposite sides of vallies? When beds of coal terminate suddenly, can they be regained? and how? What has been observed of the positions of the beds of coal, in reference to the sloping of the vein or dyke?

FIG. 27.—Page from Mather's Elements of Geology.

[a] A copy of this book, in the possession of the present writer, has the following printed indorsement pasted on the inside of the front cover:

[Recommendation of Professor Silliman, of Yale College.]

DEAR SIR: You ask my opinion of the Elements of Geology, for the use of schools, by Wm. W. Mather. I think that it is a judicious, correct, and perspicuous work—containing, in a small compass, a solution of many of the most important facts and theoretical views in geology, and that it is well adapted to the objects for which it was written.

Yours, respectfully,

B. SILLIMAN.

Mr. WM. LESTER, Jr.
NEW HAVEN, *June 18, 1834.*

Mather resigned his commission in 1836 and gave up his time wholly to science. He was for a short time professor of chemistry and mineralogy in the University of Louisiana, but in 1836 became connected with the Ohio State survey, and afterward with those of New York and Kentucky, as mentioned elsewhere.

He is described as a large and robust man, with great capacity for physical and mental labor—a man "equable in his disposition and gentle in his manners, considerate of others and just in his judgment of them, modest, but manly and self-reliant and thoroughly versed in the branches of science to which he devoted himself."

Cotting's Work in Georgia, 1836.

With a view of directing the attention of the legislature to the important subject of a geological and agricultural survey of the State of Georgia, the patriotic citizens of Burke and Richmond counties in 1836, at their own individual expense, directed Prof. John R. Cotting—

to make a geological and agricultural survey of their respective counties. To examine all localities of limestone, marls, and all other minerals useful in agriculture and the arts. Also rocks that may be proper for the purpose of architecture, the construction of roads, railways, etc. To examine the water of springs and wells with regard to the salubrity or insalubrity of the same. To analyze the soils on different plantations in the two counties, with a view to their improvement. To illustrate the whole by drawings, diagrams, and a chart of the two counties, and to present a report of the same to his excellency the governor, in order that it may come properly before the two branches of the legislature should he deem the subject of sufficient importance.

In conformity with these instructions Cotting, in the latter part of March, began his survey, which was continued for eight months, the results appearing in the form of a duodecimo volume of 198 pages, unaccompanied by drawings or maps of any kind, since such could not be made within the State and the time assigned for publication would not permit of the original drawings being sent north.

The work was divided into three parts: (1) Topography, (2) economic, and (3) scientific geology. The ideas advanced were naturally largely a reflection of those held by English and European authorities. The formations were divided into Tertiary, Secondary, Transition, and Primitive. Granite was recognized as an igneous rock, but it does not appear that the fact of its deep-seated origin and subsequent exposure by erosion was taken into account.

Many of these rocks [he wrote] occur not only together, forming a group or series, but are ejected in fragments through others and over incumbent strata to the highest series, assuming the appearance of having been once in a fused state. Thus fragments bearing all the features of having been fused or, at least, acted upon by fire or intense heat, occur scattered over the surface or imbedded in the strata of the Tertiary and Diluvial of this district, affording a demonstration that this region of country has been subjected to violent internal forces. The granite or syenite exhibits marks of some great force acting laterally and perpendicularly, which has rent the mass, heaved it up, and projected some of the fragments to a great distance.

It is evident here that he considered the bowlder structure incident to decomposition as original and due to method of extrusion.

Some interesting views regarding volcanic agencies are given in discussing the possible origin of the buhrstone, a chalcedonic rock carrying abundant casts of shells. The material as found occurred "only on the upper part of eminences and the edges of inverted cones." This he seemed to think offered a sufficient demonstration of its igneous origin, and he would account for its uplift on the theory of submarine explosions taking place over a large extent of sea bottom simultaneously. The vesicular character of the buhrstone he likewise regarded as indicative of its volcanic origin. "It is highly probable that the fused mass in that state was spread over the bottom of the then existing ocean and that these vesicles or holes were the effect of water converted into steam by the influence of the heat of the mass." Inasmuch as the fusion of silica without the aid of some other constituent to act as a flux is a phenomenon unknown in nature, such views now strike one as somewhat extraordinary. Nevertheless they were in accord with their time.

Although no use was made of fossils in attempting to ascertain the relative age of the various rocks, he nevertheless recognized the fact that they indicated a sedimentary origin. He wrote:

> Geological investigation has led to the conclusion that there have been a number of deluges at different periods or, rather, that the oceanic waters have swept over the land, continued for an indefinite period, and then retreated several times, leaving their débris behind them. In no other place, perhaps, is the truth of the hypothesis better established than in this region, where fossil remains of different animals characterize different formations, as it is evident that these fossils must have been formed from animals who could not have existed under the earth, but on its surface and at the bottom of the then existing sea.

This well-meant attempt to arouse public interest proved only partially successful. The legislature of the following winter adopted a resolution authorizing the governor to employ a suitable and well qualified person to undertake the work and appropriated $10,000 to carry it on. Doctor Little was thereupon appointed State geologist, but as the legislature of 1840 abolished the office nothing of value was accomplished.

For but the third time in this history we are called upon to step beyond the limits of the United States, and for the second time upon the soil of Nova Scotia, a land still later made famous through the labors of Logan and the elder Dawson. In 1836 there appeared a volume of 272 octavo pages, entitled Remarks on the Geology and Mineralogy of Nova Scotia, by Abraham Gesner. This had been preceded only by Jackson and Alger's work, and was for its time unquestionably a remarkable book. A geological map of the interior of the peninsula accompanied the volume. The southwestern border was colored as occupied by primary

Gesner's Work in Nova Scotia, 1836.

granites, gneiss, and mica-slate, this being succeeded by a wide belt (colored blue) of transition slate, graywacke, and graywacke slate, and this, in its turn, by a broad band of sandstone (colored red) extending up as far as Westmoreland County, New Brunswick. The broad belt of trap rocks along the southwest shore of the Bay of Fundy was colored green. Important beds of iron ore were indicated in the transition slate and of coal in the red sandstone. These districts were described in considerable detail, and attention was called to the fact that the different formations corresponded in direction and general character with those of the United States.

Gesner's ideas regarding the uplifting of strata and the causes thereof were not at all in advance of his time. Thus writing of the position of the slate:

> The strata are variously inclined, and in some cases much twisted and broken; but generally they are so placed as to support the opinion that the primary rocks under their southern side have been uplifted by some violent and sudden movement which has thrown the neighboring slate in its present leaning, and often perpendicular, position.

The iron ore of the South Mountains he regarded as of aqueous origin, such being demonstrated by the presence of the marine fossil shells which it contained. Their presence, however, he was unable to explain.

> From whence came these shells, and by what mighty convulsions and changes in this globe have their inmates been deprived of life and incarcerated in hard, compact, and unyielding rocks? By what momentous and violent catastrophe have they been forced from the bottom of the ocean, where they were evidently at some former period placed, to the height of several hundred feet above the level of the present sea, and even to the tops of the highest mountains?

And further on:

> It is evident that the slate and ore containing the shells already mentioned were once at the bottom of an ancient sea. * * * By some mighty revolution the ground occupied by them has been uplifted and their native submarine possessions converted into slate, and even iron ore.

The fact that some of this iron ore is magnetic was regarded by Jackson and Alger as due to the presence of trap rock. Gesner, however, considered this as not probable, and called attention to the fact that the trap rocks are placed in a situation indicating a date much later than the New Red sandstone upon which they rest.

Notwithstanding the crudity of his notions as to the manner in which the fossil remains had become entombed, Gesner possessed very advanced ideas concerning their value for correlation purposes. This is shown in his discussion of the slate range extending from Yarmouth to the Gut of Canso. The fossils found therein, he felt, had an existence coeval with the original stratification.

They were inhabitants of the same age, enjoyed similar bounties, the same climate, and were companions at a period when the waters of the sea were as warm as those of the present tropical oceans; a fact easily proved by their organization and the beauty and delicacy of their shelly coverings. The corals, coraline sponges, and other vegetable productions of that period, although bearing a striking resemblance to those now flourishing in submarine situations, have nevertheless some peculiar characteristic features, distinguishing them from species of the same classes now inhabiting our shores, although their lineal descendants have long since passed away.

Gesner was an extreme catastrophist, and his ideas concerning the origin of the drift, as well as that of coal, were formulated more or less by the scriptural account of the flood. Discussing the fragments of slate and the masses of quartz rock and granite that were found scattered over the surface of the Red Sandstone, and even entering into its composition at great depth, he argued that their shape demonstrated that they had been transported by the efforts of mighty currents. From this fact he conceived that similar causes had operated upon the surface of the earth at separate and distinct periods of time, one period having produced the ingredients of the newer rocks, which in their turn had been evidently denuded by the rapidity of overwhelming floods. He thought it probable that the first great catastrophe arose when the earth emerged from beneath the waters at its first creation, before which darkness was upon the face of the deep, and that it was not improbable that another geological event may have produced another class of phenomena at that period when the "windows of heaven were opened and the fountains of the great deep broken up."

The giant bowlders, sometimes found on the very hilltops, he recognized as erratics, but could not believe them to be due to flood action. "They have doubtless been thrown upwards," he wrote, "and left cresting the highest ridges, by volcanic explosions that have taken place since the general inundation of our planet." The general phenomena of the drift, however, he regarded as almost certainly the effect "of an overwhelming deluge which at a former period produced those results now so manifest upon the earth. Not only hath the granite sent its heralds abroad, large blocks of trap are also scattered over the soil of Nova Scotia far from their original and former stations."

That coal is of organic origin he recognized, though as to the manner of its accumulation he was somewhat in doubt. He assumed that a part of it at least may have collected at the bottom of the sea, together with successive layers of sand and clay, and that the beds had since been uplifted by volcanic forces. The method of conversion of the organic matter into coal, he thought, might also have been brought about through the intervention of volcanic forces.

In discussing the changes which have taken place on the surface of the earth, he queried if such might not

have been produced between that period when the globe was first created and the Noachian deluge, and might not many of those effects, the causes of which are now

almost inexplicable, have been produced at that momentous period when the "windows of heaven were opened, and the fountains of the great deep broken up." * * * In no way can these phenomena be so satisfactorily accounted for and explained as by admitting the brief account of the creation of the world in the first chapter of Genesis; and that there is no necessity for making the world appear older than its date given by Moses.

Again:

The volcanic fires of the earth are gradually becoming extinct. They were evidently far more vehement in former ages than in the present day. Therefore, we have sufficient reasons to believe that from the creation of the world to the deluge great changes must have taken place upon the earth's surface. Who can clearly decide that the flaming sword which forever shut out our first parents from Eden's delightful garden was not a livid torrent of flame issuing from the ground polluted by sin?

Concerning the limestones of the coal formation along the Nepan River, he wrote:

On the surface of the limestone the detritus of the deluge forms a distinct covering; and, according to the opinion of some geologists, should not be considered in any way connected with the changes which have taken place in the strata beneath. But we would remark that although the beds of rounded pebbles and sand clearly demonstrate the effects of a flood, they can have no reference to the great geological catastrophe which ushered in that awful event. The depression of whole continents, the raising of the ocean's level bed, the distortion of strata previously horizontal, the elevation of mountains, and all those violent operations whereby the whole surface of this planet has been rent asunder, might have been the prelude to that overwhelming deluge, while the diluvial débris resulted from the action of torrents after the crust of the globe had been thus broken up.

Gesner was born of German-French ancestry in Cornwallis, Nova Scotia, and was by profession a physician and surgeon. For a long time after obtaining his degree he practiced his profession in the country bordering the shores of Minas Basin, making his visits on horseback, and often returning with saddlebags filled with specimens collected on the way. In 1838, two years after the publication just referred to, he was appointed provincial geologist of New Brunswick, and removed to St. John, where he established the Gesner Museum, afterwards purchased by the Natural History Society of New Brunswick. This was an all-round natural history collection, many of the zoological specimens having been collected by Gesner himself, who was an ardent sportsman.

Sketch of Gesner.

FIG. 28.—Abraham Gesner.

After the somewhat premature closing of the survey in 1846(?), Gesner left St. John and returned to Cornwallis. During his residence here he wrote his works on New Brunswick, with notes for emigrants,

and The Industrial Resources of Nova Scotia. Besides his medical practice and the scientific and literary work already mentioned, Gesner engaged in studies in applied science, particularly in electricity and chemistry, and in 1854 took out a patent in the United States for the manufacture of kerosene from coal and other bituminous substances. About this period he resided in Brooklyn, New York, and was connected with the company having works on Newton Creek near Perry Bridge. In 1861 he published a work on coal, petroleum, and other distilled oils. He returned to Halifax in 1863, where he died the following year.

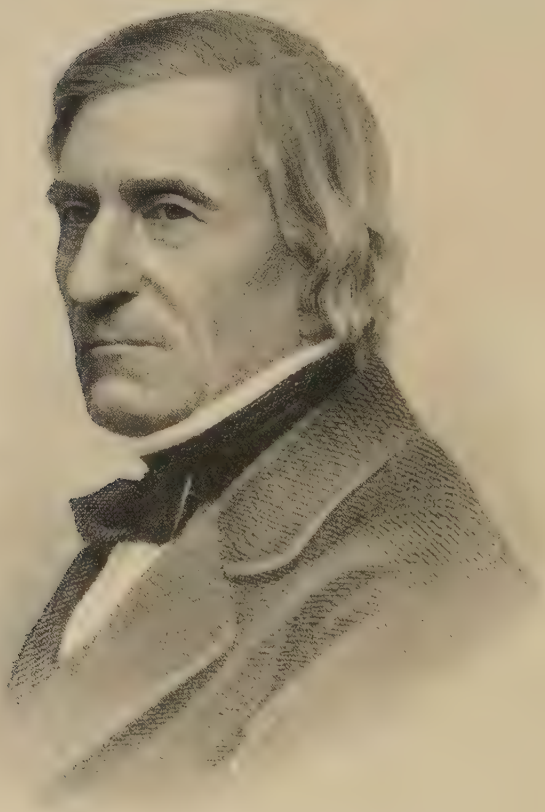
He is represented as a man of medium height, with deep chest and square shoulders, black hair and eyes, and a face showing deep thought and strong intellectual power. He was unquestionably a man of great mental and physical energy. He was noted for his deep piety and remained all his life a firm churchman. It is told of him that, when connected with Guy's Hospital in London, if troubled by any physiological mystery which had become a subject of speculation, he always gave as his ultimate conclusion that "God made it so." This phrase became known as "Gesner's reason" and was so used among the students.

Although C. U. Shepard's work was mainly mineralogical, he occasionally contributed papers on areal geology. Thus, in the American Journal of Science for 1838, we find an article by him on the geology of upper Illinois. In this he described the extensive Kankakee swamp region south of Chicago, and the old beach lines above the present lake level. He also discussed the possible overflow of the lake in ancient periods to the southward, and dwelt to a considerable extent on the possibility of and the commercial advantages to be derived by uniting the waters of Lake Michigan and the Illinois River, forming thus a connection with the Mississippi.

Shepard on Geology of Upper Illinois, 1838.

FIG. 29.—Charles Upham Shepard.

The geology of the region was described as being exceedingly simple and uniform, the great rock formation being the magnesian limestone. He mentioned the occurrence in this of "Orthocera" and large "Pectunculus" and "Terebratula," two species of "Ammonites" and "Caryophyllia," and a "Favosites." The northern boundary of the coal formation he said he could not define with precision through lack of opportunity to explore it in detail. A geological section of the region between Fox River and Spring Creek accompanied the paper.



WILLIAM BARTON ROGERS.
State Geologist of Virginia.

On March 6, 1835, the general assembly of Virginia authorized the appointment of a "suitable person" to make a geological reconnaissance of the State with a view to the general geological features of the territory and to the chemical composition of its soils, rocks, ores, mineral waters, etc. Prof. W. B. Rogers, then professor of natural history, philosophy, and chemistry in William and Mary College, and brother of H. D. Rogers, was selected as the suitable person, entering upon his duties in 1835 and holding the office for seven years. He was assisted from time to time by George W. Boyd, Caleb Briggs, E. A. Aiken, C. B. Hayden, Samuel Lewis, J. B. Rogers, H. D. Rogers, R. E. Rogers, Thomas S. Ridgeway, and M. Wells. The survey continued in existence until the close of 1842, the act of authorization being repealed by the legislature.

Rogers's Work in Virginia, 1835–1841.

No provision was made for the preparation of a final report, although Rogers was ready to undertake the same, and the idea not finally abandoned until as late as 1854. The necessary appropriation was, however, not granted, and the seven brief annual reports submitted are all there is to show for years of careful and patient work under most adverse circumstances. No map and no sections were published at the time. In 1884, after Rogers's death, a reprint of all these reports was made under the editorship of Maj. Jed. Hotchkiss, an engineer, of Staunton, Virginia. They formed an octavo volume of upward of five hundred pages. This was accompanied by a small geological map which Rogers had previously colored for Hotchkiss, and by numerous plates of sections, which are, however, not described in the text.

Under the conditions enumerated above, it is not surprising that the reports contained little of more than local interest, and that the broader aspects of geology were barely touched upon. The region west of the Blue Ridge was described as occupied by fourteen groups of strata, which were designated by numbers, beginning with the lowermost. These all showed so general a conformity in superposition, and so remarkable a correspondence in their mineralogical and physical characters, as to clearly indicate, he felt, the propriety of regarding them all as parts of one great series of strata accumulated over the widely expanded floor of the ancient ocean.

No mention was made of the fossil contents of any of these beds, nor attempts at correlation or determination of their geological age. This seems the more remarkable when one considers the value attached to fossils by Rogers in his work on the Tertiary formations, where the inspection of a single shell, he claimed, would often enable one to pronounce upon the character of the stratum from which it was taken – that is, whether pertaining to the Eocene or Miocene.

The Massanutten Mountains were recognized as one great synclinal tract resting in a trough of slate. It is worthy of note, in view of the

H. D. Rogers-Hitchcock controversy referred to elsewhere (p. 314), that in his report for 1838 Rogers described in considerable detail "the extraordinary phenomenon of inversion" presented throughout the long reach of North Mountains, whereby the entire series from formations II to VIII, inclusive, were found to lie conformably one upon the other, but in a reversed stratigraphical position; that is, the oldest above and the youngest at the bottom. No attempt, however, was made to account for the same.

In the report for 1839 the Tertiary marl south of the James River was described in detail and its Eocene and Miocene subdivisions recognized. In that for 1840 was given a list of the fossils found in the Miocene marls, and attention called to the discovery of a "remarkable stratum varying from 12 to 25 feet in thickness, composed almost entirely of microscopic fossils (Diatoms), and lying between the Eocene and Miocene, but referred to neither." This, the first discovery of its kind in the United States, was referred to as an "infusory stratum."[a] The coarse "middle secondary" conglomerates of Virginia, corresponding to the Potomac marble (Triassic) of Maryland, he regarded as having been deposited by strong currents coming from the southeast which laid down their load in a long, narrow trough extending from southwest to the northeast; such "being deposited in successive layers, commencing at its southeastern margin, would naturally assume the attitude of strata dipping toward the northwest."

When one considers the condition of the country at the time Rogers did his work—the lack of facilities for transportation, the entire lack of maps sufficiently accurate for purposes of plotting, the deep mantle of residuary material that nearly everywhere obscured the more solid rocks, and that there were no railroad cuts or other artificial exposures, such as exist to-day—one can but admire its accuracy. It is not yet too late to express regrets that the parsimony of the legislature should have stood in the way of the preparation of a final report.

W. B. Rogers undoubtedly derived a portion of his enthusiasm for geology from his brother Henry. The first manifestations of this mental trend appeared while professor of natural philosophy and chemistry at William and Mary College in 1833, when he set on foot inquiries relative to the greensand marl of Virginia. His first publication, as given in his biography, however, related to artesian wells and appeared in the Farmer's Register of Richmond (1834-35).

The poverty of his resources in 1835, while hopefully agitating the establishment of a State geological survey for Virginia, can not be better illustrated than by noting the request sent to his brother Henry, in Philadelphia, for the chemicals and apparatus mentioned below to be

[a] In 1843 Tuomey announced the discovery of an infusorial stratum at Petersburg, in Virginia. This he referred to the lower portion of the Miocene.

used in the prosecution of his scientific work. The list comprised 1 platinum capsule, 1 pound of absolute alcohol (French), one-half ounce oxide of ammonia, one-half pound distilled muriatic acid (pure), 1 pound distilled nitric acid, one 4-ounce vial of phosphate of ammonia, 1 foot small platinum wire for blowpipe.

He wrote:

> My alcohol, with all the economy I have used, is almost exhausted. The gill which I had at the opening of the course has been used at least ten times in analysis, and though carefully distilled off in each operation, a portion is, of course, lost.

In August of 1835 Rogers was elected to the chair of natural philosophy in the University of Virginia, at Charlottesville, a position which he gladly accepted, being, undoubtedly, influenced in part at least by the more healthful climate of the latter place.

His first years here were, however, full of trial, owing to the dual nature of his duties—teacher and State geologist—and the lawless character of many of the students. Lacking, as he was, in physical stamina at the beginning, the trials as professor and the lack of appreciation of his work by the State legislature undoubtedly wore upon him severely and had to do with his comparatively early breaking down.

Like other of the broader men of his time, Rogers was an all-round scientist, and wrote not merely on geology, but made observations on the aurora, experiments with reference to binocular visions, and other subjects.

As early as 1846, in connection with his brother Henry, he formulated plans for the Polytechnic School in Boston, which place he felt persuaded was on all accounts the best suited for an institution of this kind. "I long for an atmosphere of more stimulating power," he wrote from Charlottesville, and with these thoughts in mind he resigned his professorship in 1848, but was induced to reconsider and remain for five years longer. On his final removal to Boston in 1853 he continued to take an active part in scientific and educational matters. The year 1859 found him again actively advocating his plan for an institute of technology, the matter being brought forward at this time in connection with the so-called Back Bay lands and their rapidly enhancing value, and in 1861 an act to incorporate the Massachusetts Institute of Technology passed the legislature and was approved by the governor. In 1862, an organization having been perfected, he was elected its first president, an office he continued to hold until forced to resign by ill health in 1870. In 1878, his health having improved, he was again induced to temporarily accept the presidency, holding the position three years, and being succeeded by Gen. F. A. Walker.

His reputation as a geologist rests mainly upon his work as State geologist of Virginia and that on the structure of the Appalachian

Chain in connection with his brother, H. D. Rogers. He was, however, widely known as an educator and orator. To quote from one of his biographers:

> The wide extent of his own studies and researches in mechanics, physics, chemistry, and geology; his truly philosophical spirit, his unfailing courtesy and urbanity, his warm sympathies, his scientific enthusiasm, his commanding and stately presence, his rare gifts of expression, all combined to make him the ideal presiding officer. His introductions were most felicitous; his comments highly suggestive and inspiring; his summing up was always a masterpiece of discriminating and judicious reasoning, while, over all, his rich, tropical eloquence threw a spell as of poesy and romance, for to him the truth was always beautiful, and the most solid and substantial structure of scientific principle stood in his view against a sunset sky, radiant with a light which no painter's pencil ever had the art to fix to canvas.

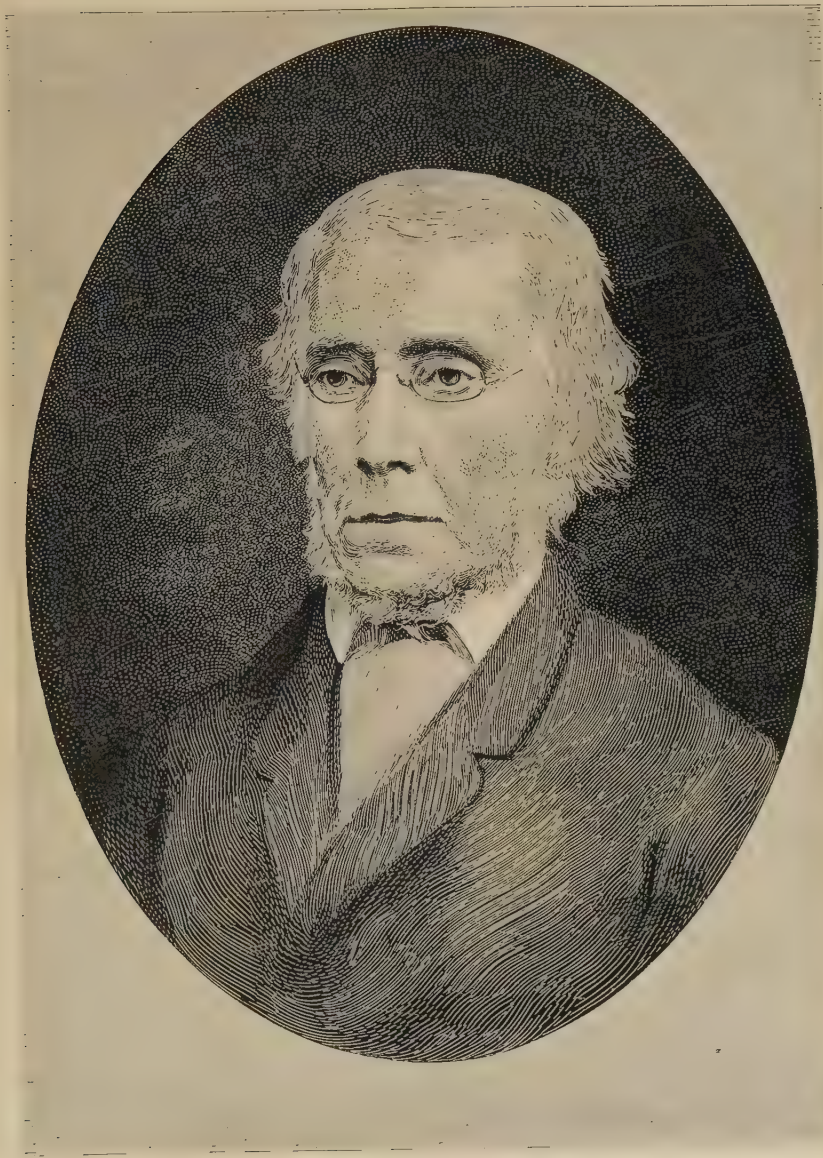
Geological Survey of New York, 1836.

On April 15, 1836, there was authorized by the State assembly a geological and mineralogical survey of New York. This led to an organization which has left a more lasting impression upon American geology than any that has followed or had preceded it. As fate ordained, the locality was one of the most favorable that could have been selected for working out the fundamental principles of stratigraphic geology; moreover, those appointed to do the work proved equal to the occasion. The New York survey gave to American geology a nomenclature largely its own; it demonstrated above everything else the value of fossils for purposes of correlation, and incidentally it brought into prominence one man, James Hall, who was destined to become America's greatest paleontologist.

To secure the greatest amount of individual freedom and to facilitate the work to best advantage, the State was divided into four districts, W. W. Mather being placed in charge of the first, Ebenezer Emmons the second, Timothy A. Conrad the third, and Lardner Vanuxem the fourth. The survey continued in existence for five years, reports being issued annually in the form of assembly documents, the final reports appearing in 1842–43 in the form of quarto volumes, comprising, all told, over 2,000 pages and 82 plates, sections, and maps.

The mineralogical and chemical work of the survey was placed under the charge of Dr. Lewis C. Beck, while Dr. John Torrey was made botanist and Dr. James E. De Kay given charge of the zoological department. At the end of the first season Conrad resigned, to become paleontologist of the survey, and James Hall, who had previously been an assistant to Emmons, was put in charge of the fourth district, while Vanuxem was transferred to the second. As with all the earlier surveys, agriculture and mining were considered subjects of primary importance. The results of the survey can, however, be best considered under the date of issue of the final reports (p. 374).

This same year witnessed also the establishment of a geological survey in the adjoining State of Pennsylvania, of which H. D. Rogers,



TIMOTHY ABBOTT CONRAD.

Paleontologist.

also State geologist of New Jersey, was placed in charge. This survey, as first planned, was expected to continue for a period of at least ten years, but was brought to an abrupt close in 1842, owing to the financial embarrassments of the Commonwealth. Rogers, however, unwilling to relinquish the work in its incomplete form, continued on his own responsibility, and largely at his own expense, for three years longer, and in 1847 deposited in the office of the secretary of the Commonwealth his final report, ready for publication. For reasons to be noted later, the publication of this report was delayed until 1858.

Geological Survey of Pennsylvania, 1836.

During its period of existence the survey issued six annual reports, the first bearing the date of 1836 and the last 1842. These were small octavos, destitute of illustration, with the exception of a few outline sections, and of from 100 to 250 pages each. The results of the work were so completely elaborated in the final reports issued in 1858 that these preliminary publications have been almost completely lost sight of and are of merely historical interest. It is well to note that, owing to the large proportion of foreign population in the State at that date, two editions of the preliminary reports were issued—one in English and one in German. This dual publication, so far as the present writer is aware, was paralleled only in the case of the Ohio survey, under Newberry.

As with the New York survey, the results of Rogers's work can be best summed up in a consideration of the final reports (see p. 489.)

After nearly ten years of agitation, there was passed by both houses of Congress, and approved by the President on May 14, 1836, a bill providing for an exploring expedition to the South Polar regions and the islands and coasts of the Pacific. This expedition, which finally sailed from Norfolk on August 17, 1838, and which, from the name of its commander in chief, has come to be known as the Wilkes Exploring Expedition, had for its immediate object the increase of such knowledge as would be of interest and value to the whaling industry, which had suffered severely through loss of men and vessels in these remote regions. Research along other lines was purely secondary. Fortunately, however, the scientific men of the day were fully alive to the possibilities offered, and, through their influence, an efficient corps of trained observers in various lines was permitted to accompany it. Of these only the geologist, J. D. Dana, who sailed on the *Peacock*, comes within the range of our present work, though incidental reference will be made to J. P. Couthouy, who sailed on the *Vincennes*. Inasmuch, however, as no tangible results from the expedition were made known until after the return of Dana, in 1841, the entire matter may also be dismissed here and taken up again under the latter date.

Wilkes Exploring Expedition, 1836.

In March, 1836, sixteen years after her establishment on a basis of independent statehood, the legislature of Maine authorized the appointment of "some suitable person" to make a geological survey of the State "as soon as circumstances will permit," appropriating the sum of $5,000 to cover expenses.[a] On June 25 a contract was entered into with Dr. C. T. Jackson for the carrying out of the same. Jackson seems to have entered upon his duties promptly and energetically, making his first report, a volume of 116 octavo pages, in December, 1836. This was accompanied by an atlas of 24 plates. His results were apparently satisfactory to the legislature, the appointment being renewed the following year and $3,000 appropriated for expenses. Under this appropriation a second annual report of 168 octavo pages was forthcoming. This in its turn was seemingly satisfactory, for the geologist's salary was increased from $1,000 to $1,500 a year, while the sum appropriated for the carrying on of the work was made discretionary with the governor and council. Under such favoring conditions it is not strange perhaps that the State geologist became effusive and brought his third (and last) report up to 276 pages, with an appendix of 64 pages, containing a catalogue of the collections.

Jackson's Geology of Maine, 1836–39.

These reports, examined in the light of to-day, contain very little which would be considered of geological importance. Jackson seems to have roamed somewhat at random over the State, with little idea of the geological structure as a whole, and to have contented himself with making detailed notes on whatever was immediately at hand, regardless of its possible relationship to other formations at a distance and with an eye particularly to economic questions.

From the finding of marine shells at Lubec in layers of clay now some twenty-six feet above high-water mark, he rightly conjectured that the land had been elevated that amount within a comparatively recent period. He regarded the sandstones now known to be Devonian in the extreme eastern counties as identical with the red Triassic sandstones of Nova Scotia, and seriously discussed the possibility of their containing bituminous coal. The slates of Piscataquis County were classed as transition, and the possibility of their carrying anthracite coal was likewise discussed.

In his third annual report he noted the occurrence of fossil plants in the slates of Waterville and remarked on the discovery as being a strange occurrence, since the rocks belong to the older Transition series.[b]

[a] The legislature of Massachusetts authorized State cooperation in this survey so far as it related to certain public lands which were the joint property of the two States.

[b] At the second session of the American Association of Geologists in Philadelphia, 1841, Professor O. P. Hubbard exhibited a specimen of this slate and was able to show by the aid of "Murchison's Silurian system" that they were not plant remains but annelid trails, a view which Jackson accepted.

The possibility of the occurrence of beds of coal at Small Point Harbor near Phippsburg was investigated. As a result it was announced that there was no possibility of such being included in rock of the nature there found, and that the coal sometimes thrown up on the beach was presumably from English sources. So early a statement of this nature is interesting in view of borings for coal which have taken place along this coast within a very few years.

Jackson's views on the glacial deposits were naturally crude. The "horsebacks" (ridges of glacial gravel) were regarded as diluvial material transported by a mighty current of water.

> It is supposed that this rushing of water over the land took place during the last grand deluge, accounts of which have been handed down by tradition and are preserved in the archives of all people. Although it is commonly supposed that the deluge was intended solely for the punishment of the corrupt antediluvians, it is not improbable that the descendants of Noah reap many advantages from its influence, since the various soils underwent modifications and admixtures which render them better adapted for the wants of man. May not the hand of Benevolence be seen working even amid the waters of the deluge?

It is, perhaps, doubtful if the hard-fisted occupant of many of Maine's rocky farms would be disposed to take so cheerful a view of the matter.

However Jackson's work may impress the reader of to-day, it was considered by a reviewer in the American Journal of Science (XXXII, 1837) as a "model of its kind. It has certainly not been surpassed by any similar effort in this country," and "The present sketch of Maine is a masterly production."

In 1839 the general assembly of Rhode Island appropriated the sum of $2,000 to pay the expenses of a geological and agricultural survey of the State, and Doctor Jackson, fresh from his work in Maine, was placed in charge of this also, making his report the following year. This constituted the first, last, and only survey of Rhode Island carried on under State auspices.

Jackson's Survey of Rhode Island, 1839.

Such a work was naturally productive of little of importance, and no new principles whatever were evolved. Aside from the gathering of a few facts of possible economic value, it resulted only in an extension of knowledge relative to the distribution of certain geologic groups. This, however, was a feature of all the work carried on by Jackson. As further illustrating the condition of geological knowledge, the report is, however, worthy of consideration.

In his introduction he remarked on the attempt on the part of some geologists to abandon the name Transition and to group these rocks with the Secondary, according to the original schemes of Lehman, and felt that a numerical division would doubtless be found preferable to any of the fanciful names proposed for some of its subdivisions. The names Cambrian and Silurian, as proposed in England, he

thought, "will never be regarded in this country as appropriate terms for our rocks." He recognized the existence of contact phenomena, and also that the degree of crystallization and general structural features of an igneous rock are dependent upon conditions of cooling, though he regarded pumice as being formed when the fused rock, under little pressure, was brought in contact with water. The possibility of the cellular structure being due to expansion of vapor of water in the lava itself was not recognized. The hornblende rock, so extensively developed in Cumberland, Smithfield, and Johnston, he regarded as of igneous origin, and suggested that its apparent stratiform structure might be due to an admixture of the argillaceous slate through which it was elevated.

The eruptive nature of the Cumberland iron ore was also recognized, though naturally the fact that the rock was an iron-rich peridotite partially altered into serpentine, as later described by Wadsworth, was overlooked.

The origin of the drift was to him still obscure. Concerning the distribution in the form of bowlders of the iron ore to the southward, above mentioned, he wrote:

> There can not remain a doubt that a violent current of water has rushed over the surface of the State since the elevation and consolidation of all the rocks and subsequent to the deposition of the tertiary clay, and that this current came from the north. * * * Upon the surface of solid ledges, wherever they have been recently uncovered of their soil, scratches are seen running north and south and the hard rocks are more or less polished by the currents of water which at the diluvial epoch coursed over their surfaces, carrying along the pebbles and sand which effected this abrasion, leaving striæ, all of which run north and south, deviating a few degrees occasionally with the changes of direction given to the current by obstacles in its way.

He did not accept the theory of drifting icebergs, "nor can we allow that any glaciers could have produced them by their loads of sliding rocks, for in that case they should radiate from the mountains instead of following a uniform course along hillsides and through valleys."

The report was accompanied by six plates of Coal-Measure fossils and a geological map.

Geological work in Delaware at the expense of the State began and ended with the survey by J. C. Booth, a chemist, during 1837–38. Incidentally, it may be remarked that Mr. Booth's career as a geologist was equally prescribed.

Booth's Survey of Delaware, 1837-38.

A unique feature of the act establishing the survey was the requirement that an equal portion of the appropriation should be expended in each county, regardless of existing conditions. The clause was presumably inserted to allay local jealousies, but the absurdity of the same is, nevertheless, so great as to leave no room for comment. In the report, which appeared in the

form of an octavo volume of 188 pages in 1841, the geological formations of the State were divided into (1) Primary, (2) Upper Secondary, (3) Tertiary, and (4) Recent. The geographical distribution and lithological character of each was given in detail. The Primary included gneiss, feldspathean rocks (traps), limestone, serpentine, and granite; the Upper Secondary, the Red Clay Formation and the Green Sand Formation. The Tertiary he divided into the northern Tertiary, the southern Tertiary, the yellow-clay formation of Appoquinimink Hundred, and the intermediate clays and sands. The Recent Formations were divided into the lower clays, the upper sands, and the river deposits. Attention was given to the Greensand and to other questions of economic interest.

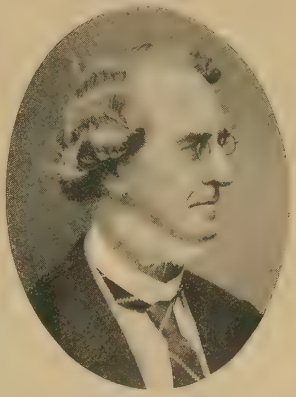


FIG. 30.—James Curtis Booth.

The report as a whole represents the patient attempt of a man unversed in the broader problems of geology who wrote down only what he saw and thought he understood. His remarks on the weathering of rocks are perhaps the most striking. The entire cost of this survey to the State was $3,000, of which sum Booth received $2,000 for his two years' work, the remainder going to defray cost of publication of the report and various incidentals.

In 1837 there was organized the first State geological survey of Indiana, Dr. D. D. Owen, who had served as an assistant on the survey of Tennessee under Gerard Troost, being appointed State geologist. The life of the survey was limited to two years, and two reports were rendered, one of 34 pages, bearing date of 1838, and one of 54 pages, bearing date of 1839.[a]

D. D. Owen's Survey of Indiana, 1837–39.

The essential similarity of the formations of Indiana with those of Ohio was recognized. The lowest lying, oldest rock, called blue limestone,[b] which he regarded as the equivalent of the Lower Silurian limestones of Europe, was described as forming, near the common boundary line between Indiana and Ohio, a kind of backbone which dipped gently in east and west directions, gradually disappearing in both States beneath a series of overlapping strata which, with one exception, have uniform characteristics. Here for the second time (see p. 333) is recognized the presence of the low swell known later as the Cincinnati anticline or uplift, which was subsequently identified by Newberry and Safford as a Middle Silurian emergence. This blue limestone was overlain by another limestone, regarded as the

[a] Reprints of these appeared under date of 1859.

[b] This is the equivalent of the Cincinnatian division of the Lower Silurian of recent writers.

equivalent of the Cliff rock (Niagaran) of Doctor Locke; this, in its turn, by a series of black slates, the equivalent of the Waverly sandstones of Ohio, and this in turn by a series of limestones in part oolitic and the equivalent of the Ohio conglomerate. This last, immediately upon which the coal formation rests at Oil Creek, in Perry County, he considered the uppermost member of a new series, to which he applied the name sub-Carboniferous, "as indicating its position immediately beneath the coal or Carboniferous group of Indiana," and "which merely indicates its position beneath the Carboniferous group without involving any theory."

Immediately overlying this sub-Carboniferous limestone was his bituminous coal formation, the latest and youngest of the series with the exception of the diluvium. He regarded the bituminous coal formation as a part of a great coal field which included nearly the whole of Iowa and Illinois and eight or ten counties in the northwestern part of Kentucky, and recognized the improbability of anthracite coal being found within the limits of the State.

He recognized the importance of fossils in geological correlation and, through the presence of the characteristic forms *pentremites* and *archimedes*, correctly referred the oolitic rock to the sub-Carboniferous, notwithstanding its close lithological resemblance to the Jurassic oolites of England and the European continent.[a]

Sketch of D. D. Owen.

David Dale Owen was a son of Robert Owen, the well-known philanthropist and founder of the communistic societies at New Lanark, Scotland, and New Harmony, Indiana. He first came to America in 1828, but in 1831 returned to Europe, in company with Prof. H. D. Rogers, for the purpose of qualifying himself in chemistry and geology. Returning to America in 1832, he studied medicine at the Ohio Medical College in Cincinnati, from whence he graduated in 1836.

His earliest geological work was done in connection with Dr. Gerard Troost in Tennessee, and his earliest independent work that which has just been mentioned. Subsequently he made surveys under the United States General Land Office, in which work he showed administrative ability of no ordinary kind. Indeed, the organization and carrying out of the plan for a survey of the mineral lands of Iowa, Minnesota, and Wisconsin (in 1839–40) within the short space of time and under the conditions imposed by Congress was a feat of generalship which has never been equalled in American geological history.

[a] There are numerous references in the reports of 1838 and 1839 to sections and a geological map which, however, were apparently never published. In a partial reprint bearing date of 1859 entitled "Continuation of Report of the Geological Reconnaissance of the State of Indiana," made in 1838, where reference is again made to this map, occurs the following footnote: "The original geological map here referred to was deposited in the State library but has not been published."

DAVID DALE OWEN.
Geologist.

His life was one of unceasing activity and furnished one more illustration of the energy, persistence, and virility of the Scotch emigrants and their descendants in America. He is described as a man of amiability, simplicity, and integrity of purpose, and certainly was an artist of no inconsiderable ability, as is exemplified by the sketches in his numerous reports. The geological sections given by him in the report on the Chippewa land district have never been equalled for picturesque effect (see Plate 19).

To properly appreciate much that is to follow, it must be remembered that, beginning with 1807, all Government lands containing ores were reserved from sale and a system of leasing adopted. No leases were, however, issued until 1822, and little mining was done previous to 1826. For a few years, according to Whitney, rents for the mining lands were paid by the operators with comparative regularity, but after 1834, in consequence of the innumerable fraudulent entries of lands as agricultural which should, in reality, have been reserved as mineral, the smelters and miners refused to make any further payments, and the United States officers were entirely unable to enforce the claims of the Government.

D. D. Owen's Surveys of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois, 1839–40.

In consequence of these difficulties a resolution was adopted in the House of Representatives, on the 6th of February, 1839—

> That the President of the United States be requested to cause to be prepared, and presented to the next Congress at an early day, a plan for the sale of the public mineral lands, having reference as well to the amount of revenue to be derived from them and their value as public property as to the equitable claims of individuals upon them; and that he at the same time communicate to Congress all the information in possession of the Treasury Department relative to their location, value, productiveness, and occupancy; and that he cause such further information to be collected and surveys to be made as may be necessary for these purposes.

In accordance with this act Doctor Owen was appointed Government geologist under direction of the General Land Office (James Whitcomb, Commissioner) to make surveys in Iowa, Wisconsin, and northern Illinois. His first report, bearing date of April 2, 1840, was printed to form House Document No. 239, of the First session of the Twenty-sixth Congress.[a] It comprised, all told, 161 printed octavo pages, with 25 plates and maps, including a colored geological map and several colored sections. Fourteen of the plates were from Owen's own drawings. The district explored comprised an area of about 11,000 square miles lying in equal portions on both sides of the Mississippi River, between latitude 41° and 43°, beginning at the north of Rock River and extending thence north upward of 100 miles to the Wisconsin River. (See fig. 45.)

[a] A reprint or second edition of the work was brought out in form of Senate Document No. 407, 28th Congress, 1844.

Doctor Owen's commission reached him at New Harmony, Indiana, on August 17, 1839, and its acceptance demanded that he explore "all the land in the Mineral Point and Galena districts which are situated south of the Wisconsin and north of the Rock rivers, and west of the line dividing ranges 8 and 9 east of the fourth principal meridian; together with all the surveyed lands in the Dubuque district," and complete his work before the approaching winter should set in. Concerning these somewhat remarkable conditions, Owen writes:

> After duly weighing the nature of my instructions, estimating the extent of country to be examined, considering the wild, unsettled character of a portion of it, and the scanty accommodations it could afford to a numerous party (which rendered necessary a carefully calculated system of purveyance), and ascertaining that the winter, in that northern region, commonly sets in with severity from the 10th to the middle of November, my first impression was that the duty required of me was impracticable of completion within the given time, even with the liberal permission in regard to force accorded to me in my instructions. But on a more careful review of the means thus placed at my disposal, I finally arrived at the conclusion that by using diligent exertion, assuming much responsibility, and incurring an expense which I was aware the Department might possibly not have anticipated, I might, in strict accordance with my instructions, if favored by the weather and in other respects, succeed in completing the exploration in the required time.
>
> I therefore immediately commenced engaging subagents and assistants and proceeded to St. Louis. There (at my own expense, to be repaid to me out of the per diem of the men employed) I laid in about $3,000 worth of provisions and camp furniture, including tents, which I caused to be made for the accommodation of the whole expedition; and in one month from the day on which I received my commission and instructions in Indiana (to wit, on the 17th of September) I had reached the mouth of Rock River; engaged one hundred and thirty-nine subagents and assistants; instructed my subagents in such elementary principles of geology as were necessary to the performance of the duties required of them; supplied them with simple mineralogical tests, with the application of which they were made acquainted; organized twenty-four working corps, furnished each with skeleton maps of the townships assigned to them for examination, and placed the whole at the points where their labors commenced, all along the southern line of the western half of the territory to be examined. Thence the expedition proceeded northward, each corps being required, on the average, to overrun and examine thirty quarter sections daily, and to report to myself on fixed days at regularly appointed stations; to receive which reports, and to examine the country in person, I crossed the district under examination, in an oblique direction, eleven times in the course of the survey. Where appearances of particular interest presented themselves, I either diverged from my route, in order to bestow upon these a more minute and thorough examination; or, when time did not permit this, I instructed Dr. John Locke, of Cincinnati (formerly of the geological corps of Ohio, and at present professor of chemistry in the medical college of Ohio), whose valuable services I had been fortunate enough to engage on this expedition, to inspect these in my stead.
>
> By the 24th of October the exploration of the Dubuque district was completed, and the special reports of all the townships therein were dispatched to your office and to the office of the register at Dubuque. On the 14th of November the survey of the Mineral Point district was in a similar manner brought to a close, and by the 24th of November our labors finally terminated at Stephenson, in Illinois, the examinations of all the lands comprehended in my instructions having been completed in

two months and six days from the date of our actual commencement in the field. Also several thousand specimens—some of rare beauty and interest—were collected, arranged, and labeled.

The immediate result of this examination was to establish the fact "that the district surveyed is one of the richest mineral regions, compared to extent, yet known in the world." The area marked off as including the productive lead region, as shown by his map, lay mainly in Wisconsin, but comprised also a strip of about eight townships on the Iowa side of the river and about ten townships in the northwest corner of Illinois, the ore-bearing strata being limited to a heavy-bedded magnesian limestone which, on account of its characteristic tendency to form perpendicular cliffs when subjected to weathering and erosion, he called the *Cliff limestone*. This, he thought, from its fossil remains, to be the equivalent of the Upper Silurian, and perhaps a part of the Lower Silurian of Murchison. Though sparingly developed in the east, this, according to Owen, "swells in the Wisconsin lead region into the most remarkable, most important, and most bulky member of the group. It becomes, as it were, the Aaron's rod, swallowing up all the rest," and attaining a thickness of upward of 500 feet.[a]

Owen's principal assistants were Dr. John Locke, who reported mainly on the barometrical observations, with particular reference to the measurement of altitudes and the making of geological sections, and a Mr. E. Phillips, who reported on the timber, soil, and productiveness of the region.

On April 18, 1838, Abraham Gesner, whose work in Nova Scotia we have already referred to (p. 336), was appointed provincial geologist of New Brunswick, a position he continued to hold until 1843, making during this time five brief reports, comprising altogether but 440 pages. A partial geological map was prepared, but never published. A considerable portion of the reports was given up to a discussion of economic matters, particularly the coal beds, the value of which, as noted later, he quite overestimated. The first four reports deal largely with that portion of the province south of the Miramichi, Nashwaak, and St. John's rivers. The fifth and last (1843) describes the country of the upper St. John and that between the headwaters of the Tobique and Ristigouche rivers.

Gesner's Work in New Brunswick, 1838–43.

A gradual advance is to be noted, particularly where Gesner in his second report subdivided his graywacke, which he thought comparable

[a] To James Hall's proposition to substitute the name *Niagara* for *Cliff*, Owen objected, claiming that the Niagara, as known in the east, represented only a part of the formation he was describing. In this last he was certainly right, more recent work having shown that his Cliff limestone included also beds belonging to what is now known as the Trenton period of the Lower Silurian.

with Murchison's Silurian, into upper and lower members, of which the upper contained a fossil mollusk which he identified as a terebratulite, and which Dr. G. F. Matthew[a] thinks to have been probably a somewhat poorly preserved *Orthis billingsi*. He also reported the finding of remains of conifers, calamites, and a *cactus* (?), the last being regarded by Matthew as some form imitative of a stigmaria. Though the full significance of these fossil remains was not appreciated by Gesner, yet he must be regarded as a pioneer in making known the flora of both the Cambrian and Carboniferous beds in New Brunswick.

In his fourth report he classed this graywacke with Sedgwick's Cambrian. About this time (1842) he seems to have become acquainted with Agassiz's glacial theories and referred to the expressed opinions of Lyell and Buckland with reference thereto, but thought that "the general occurrence of diluvial grooves and scratches upon the surfaces of the rocks * * * can not in general be explained unless by admitting that a great current of water has passed over the country from the north toward the south," though "it appears that ancient glaciers have had a powerful influence in the accumulation of those parallel mounds of erratic sand and gravel observed in different parts of these provinces, and likewise they may have been the means whereby bowlders of granite and other rocks have been scattered over the country."

In this, his fifth report, he gave a general description of the coal fields of the province, which he estimated as embracing an area of 8,700 square miles, or nearly one-third the entire area of New Brunswick, making it one of the largest in the world. Through the influence of these reports a great deal of interest was excited in the public mind concerning the mineral wealth of the province. A large number of mining adventures were undertaken with the expectation of immediate and favorable returns. Few of these were, however, successful, and the reaction in public feeling tended to throw discredit on Gesner's work and probably was influential in terminating his engagement, the survey being brought to an abrupt conclusion in 1843.

The problem of the Tertiary deposits of the southern Atlantic States, which up to date had been touched upon in a scientific manner only by Finch, Morton, Vanuxem, and Lea, was again, in 1839, taken up by T. A. Conrad. In the journal of the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences for this year Conrad described the Tertiary of Maryland as occupying all the tract south of an irregular line running from the vicinity of Baltimore to Washington, the Potomac being the western and the Chesapeake the eastern boundary. The deposit in the vicinity of Fort

Conrad's Work on the Tertiary, 1839.

[a] Bulletin 15, Natural History Society of New Brunswick, 1897.

Washington on the Potomac, he suggested, was probably contemporaneous with the London clay, i. e. Eocene.

The cause of the change in the character of animal life between rocks belonging to the different animal horizons, was regarded by Conrad as due to climatic changes. "Periodical refrigeration alone can explain the sudden extinction of whole races of animals and vegetables."

It is well to note that in his Geological Report for the State of New York, Conrad recognized the fact that in the earlier eras of our planet the temperature was uniform and the seas comparatively shallow. Hence, he thought, in the older rocks we should expect to find organic remains belonging to one group of species over the whole globe. Deep erosion and greater variation of temperature had caused more uncertainty in the Upper Tertiary formations.

In connection with Conrad's work, it may not be out of place to note that Prof. J. L. Riddell this same year described the surface geology of Trinity County, Texas, and, basing his determinations mainly on the beds of lignite there found, put down the prevailing sandstone as Tertiary.

Incidentally, also, it may be noted that during 1840 Mr. James T. Hodge made a trip through the eastern portion of the southern Atlantic States and made extensive collections of fossils, which were turned over to Conrad for identification. Hodge's notes, as published in the Transactions of the Association of American Geologists, contain little of geological value, but the list of fossils comprised some 134 species, of which 32 were then new to science. All were of Tertiary age.

Conrad was born in Philadelphia in 1803, and from early youth showed a decided taste for natural-history studies, though for a time following the calling of his father—that of a publisher and printer.

Sketch of Conrad.

The work noted on page 306 was his second of geological importance, and was preceded also in 1831 by a paper on American marine conchology. Of his subsequent writings on conchology, paleontology, or general geology upward of twenty related to the Tertiary, and it is upon these that his fame as a geologist chiefly rests, though in addition he described the fossils collected by the Wilkes exploring expedition, by Lieutenant Lynch's expedition to the Dead Sea, by the Mexican boundary survey under Lieutenant Emery, and was first geologist and then paleontologist to the New York State survey.

Personally Conrad was peculiar.

He wrote his letters and labels frequently on all sorts of scraps of paper, generally without date or location. He was naturally careless or unmethodical, and his citations of other authors' works can not be safely trusted without verification, and are usually incomplete. He had a very poor memory, and on several occasions has redescribed his own species. This defect increased with age, and, while no question of willful misstatement need arise, made it impossible to place implicit confidence in his own recollections of such matters as dates of publication. (Dall.)

He himself says, in a characteristic letter to F. B. Meek, written July, 1863:

I go on Monday to help H. ferret out my skulking species of paleozoic shells. May the recording angel help me. God and I knew them once, and the Almighty may know still. A man's memory is no part of his soul.

Conrad was bitterly opposed to the doctrine of evolution, and predicted that Darwin's wild speculations would soon be forgotten. Every geological age came, according to him, to a complete close, and the life of the succeeding one was a wholly new creation. His feeling on this subject is well shown in a letter, also to Meek, dated February, 1869, where he says:

I sent you to-day a copy of my paper in Kerr's geological report. I perceive by Cope, Martin, and Hayden's researches that they have not found that phantom of the imagination, a formation between chalk and Eocene. The world has been so thoroughly harried by despairing development philosophers with so little result that they may as well say the "game is up," and not speculate on lost formations lying at the bottom of the ocean, a desperate expedient to save genetic succession. It is strange that geologists can not recognize an Azoic era after the chalk. I consider, in the light of paleontology, the advent of one only form of life in the beginning to be absurd. The history of Lingula ought to teach us the permanence of certain forms of life from the beginning, while thousands of others were created and died out.

Poor in health, given to melancholy and low spirits, he furnished to American geological history that which has a counterpart only in Percival, and like Percival, it may be added, he was sometimes given to rhyming, though unlike Percival, he was slovenly and careless in his work to a point beyond endurance.

His melancholy increased with age, and frequent ill health caused him at times to lose interest in every undertaking.

A period of moping would usually end in his writing some verses which nobody would praise, and this seemed sufficiently to nettle him, to rouse him thoroughly, and he would become again enthusiastic in the matter of shells and fossils.

It was presumably during one of these moping periods that he wrote again to Meek under date of October 24, 1864, as follows:

I am troubled with the cui bono malady, and frequently wish to be under the "clods of the valley." The idea of suicide haunts me continually, and I wish to get to work to banish the horrors, but whatever side I look at work it brings expenses I think I would regret. Singular inconsistencies of man. I don't expect to live much longer, yet shrink from expenses, but such is the hard mental twist that early poverty gives the mind. My blues have been considerably increased by the death of Doctor Moore,[a] who I loved more than most other men, and by the death of my nearest and dearest sister with whom I lived in Trenton. Now I must plunge into the marl beds to keep up a little time longer and hope to finish the Miocene figures before I go where no dreams of new discoveries will haunt me. Excuse this egotism; it is the last of it; but you now see why I do so little. Only one thing remains. I don't suppose you feel the want of a home, but I have felt it all my life, and the dreams of an Egeria have overtopped the dreams of science, so

[a] Dr. W. D. Moore, of the University of Mississippi.

that in the midst of geological pursuits a horrid vacancy has yawned in my heart, and a grinning devil laughed over a drawer of fossil shells. A small Hamlet in science, I grow old and reform not.

Conrad, though primarily a paleontologist, was sometimes drawn out of his chosen field by phenomena too obvious to be overlooked, and concerning the nature of which little was actually known, even by the best authorities. The occurrence of enormous bowlders in the drift and resting often upon unconsolidated sand and gravel, naturally called for an explanation. That such could not have been brought into their present position through floods was to him obvious, neither could they have been floated by ice floes from the north during a period of terrestrial depression.

Conrad's Ideas of the Drift, 1839.

He assumed, rather, that the country, previous to what is now known as the glacial epoch, was covered with enormous lakes, and that a change in climate ensued, causing them to become frozen and converted into immense glaciers. At the same time, elevations and depressions of the earth's surface were in progress, giving various degrees of inclination to the frozen surfaces of the lakes, down which bowlders, sand, and gravel would be impelled to great distances from the points of their origin. The impelling force might, in some cases, be gravity alone; but during the close of the epoch, when the temperature had risen, vast landslides—avalanches of mud filled with detritus—would be propelled for many miles over these frozen lakes, and when the ice disappeared the same would be deposited in the form of a promiscuous aggregate of sand, gravel, pebbles, and bowlders. The polished and scratched surface of the rocks in western New York he ascribed to the action of sand and pebbles, which were carried by moving bodies of ice, that is, apparently, to local glaciation.

The year 1839 seems to have been one of remarkable activity among American geologists. Moreover, the various publications began to show a greater variation in individual opinion and a disposition on the part of many to judge for themselves rather than follow too implicitly the opinions of others. Many of the ideas put forward were naturally crude (How could they be otherwise?), but furnish us with a very good insight into the gradual evolution of ideas upon a great variety of subjects.

George E. Hayes's Views, 1839.

George E. Hayes wrote upon the geology and topography of western New York and incidentally put forth several theoretical ideas worthy of mention, even though ill-founded. He took occasion to deplore the common custom of invoking the assistance of the Noachian deluge to account for such results as erosion and the distribution of the drift. He felt that "the condition of a continent gradually elevated from the ocean, whether by volcanic action or by the expansive force of crystallization, or by any other cause whatever, would be such as to

account for all the geological phenomena hitherto attributed to the mechanical action of water." The formation of such terraces as Hitchcock had described in the valley of the Connecticut he thought might be due to the action of waves and tides. He regarded it as idle to suppose that existing streams have carved out their own channels, and ridiculed the idea that the falls of Niagara were once at Lewiston, seven miles below their present position, as had been contended by the English geologist, Bakewell.

He also decried all attempts at estimating the age of the falls or the time before they would so far cut back as to drain Lake Erie. It was his idea that the channel below the falls was cut while the rocks were being slowly raised above the level of the great inland sea and forming a limestone ridge or reef across which, at its lowest points, strong currents would alternately sweep during the ebb and flow of the tides. As the elevation progressed the currents would become more and more confined to the weakest and lowest points in the barrier, until in course of time the whole force of the conflicting currents would be concentrated at one point. "The power of the waves and the influx of the tide operating from below would be applied to the best possible advantage in tearing up the strata which most impeded their course, while the current, combined with the receding tide, would carry off the fragments. In this manner the valley of the Niagara was doubtless formed." (See Hall's views, p. 384.)

The lake beds of the region he imagined to have been formed by the unequal erosion along the edges of uplifted strata, Lake Erie lying at the junction of shale and limestone. Before this limestone had become sufficiently elevated to shut out the sea from the basin now occupied by the lakes he conceived a strong current to have set in through the Gulf of St. Lawrence, finding its way through the valleys of the Mohawk and Hudson, and dropping on its course the large quantity of bowlders foreign to the localities now so plentifully distributed over the surface.

Jackson's Survey of New Hampshire, 1839-40.

As early as 1823 Governor Woodbury, in his message to the State legislature of New Hampshire, had recommended an agricultural survey, having particularly in mind chemical investigations of the various kinds of soils. It was not, however, until 1839 that, under the earnest solicitation of Governor Page, a geological and mineralogical survey was organized, and Dr. C. T. Jackson placed at its head. This survey continued for three years, receiving annual appropriations of $3,000 to cover all expenses. The final report appeared in the form of an octavo volume of 375 pages, with two plates of colored sections and an uncolored map of the State on which the various formations, or, rather, rock types, were indicated by numbers. The localities of useful minerals, peats, etc., were also indicated, as were the dip and strike of the more

important rocks. J. D. Whitney served as assistant in the laboratory of the survey.

As with other of Jackson's reports, this work contained scarcely anything of a theoretic or advanced nature, although he did suggest that the apparent dipping of the Vermont marble beds under the Green Mountains might be due to "a folding or doubling back of the strata, which may curve around and pass down toward the shores of Lake Champlain, where the same strata may be composed of marine shells." He noted also that the secondary rocks must at some time have been horizontal and formed a continuous deposit extending entirely across the region now occupied by the White Mountains. If, however, the secondary strata were to be restored to their original horizontal position, he found an insufficiency of materials to cover the gap left by the removal of the primary rocks composing these mountains. This he would ascribe to the breaking up of the secondary rocks at this point through the sudden elevation of the primaries and a more or less altering of the same by heat.

It was Jackson's idea, as set forth in this report, that highly inclined stratified rocks could have been made to assume that position only by some distorting cause other than aqueous action. This cause he conceived to be "a deep-seated power residing in the interior of the crust of the globe," the power itself being furnished by the "great caldron of molten rocks and pent up gases and steam, there being no more difficulty in our conceiving of the adequacy of this force than in the prodigious power of steam in moving the enormous engines" daily seen in operation. He conceived that a better idea of this power might be gained if one "look to the dimensions of the earth's great boiler, and consider the comparative thinness of its sides." Volcanoes he devoutly referred to as safety valves which prevented a general upbursting of volcanic fires, and "hold all in the most perfect order, and preserve the earth in safety."

His views regarding the glacial drift would seem to have undergone no appreciable change since 1839, although perhaps somewhat differently expressed in the later reports. He wrote of this drift as due to the "ocean waters and seas of ice from the polar regions having been hurled with violence over the surface of the northern hemisphere during a period of shallow subsidence." The drifting of bowlder-laden icebergs would account for the glacial striæ, but the glacial theory of Agassiz he looked upon as quite insufficient and absurd. It is to be noted, however, that his only conception of glaciers was that of mountain glaciers of the Swiss type, the onetime presence of which was disproved by the nonradiating character of the drift and striæ. This glacial flood to which he now appealed, however, was not regarded as contemporaneous with the Noachian deluge, but as having occurred before the advent of man.

He recognized the plant origin of the coal beds, considering them as products of growth in low, moist, and warm bogs, which were at no great height above sea level, and which were frequently subjected to slow and gradual submergence and reelevation, in this following the other authorities of the day.

In 1837 there was organized a State geological survey of Michigan, the sum of $3,000 being appropriated for the carrying out of the work the first year, the amount being increased to $6,000, $8,000, and $12,000, respectively, for each of the three succeeding years, which limited the life of the organization.

Houghton's Work in Michigan, 1837-41.

Douglass Houghton, then not 30 years of age, was made State geologist, and during his term of office issued five annual reports, the last bearing date of 1842. His chief assistants were Bela Hubbard and C. C. Douglas. During the winter of 1837–38 the survey was reorganized with particular reference to provisions for zoological, botanical, and topographical departments, and additional assistants were appointed to take charge of these branches of the work.

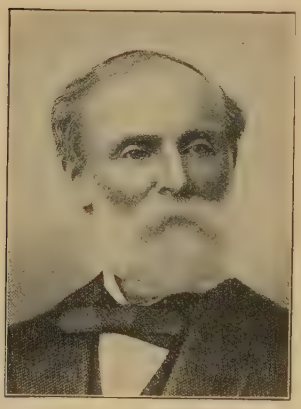


FIG. 31.—Bela Hubbard.

In his first annual report, a document of 37 pages, Houghton noted the geological features of the Lower Peninsula, classifying the formations under the heads of upper sand rock, gray limestone, and lower sandstone or graywacke group, lying for the most part in nearly horizontal positions. The sandstones of the Upper Peninsula were regarded as belonging to the Carboniferous series.[a]

In his second annual report he detailed the topographical and general character of the northern portion of the peninsula, with special remarks upon the clays, marls, and gypsums. He devoted considerable attention to a consideration of the change of elevation in the waters of the Great Lakes, which were then at a higher point than had been known for many years. Many rather startling and mysterious reports had been previously circulated regarding the abrupt change in the level of the water of the lakes, and hence Houghton's report at this time was of particular significance. His conclusions were to the effect that the entire series of changes were due to periods of increased rainfall.

A special report on the State salt springs was also submitted at about this time. In this Houghton announced that he had visited the salines of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Ohio with the view of acquiring information to guide his procedure, and had commenced the boring of two wells one on the Tittabawassee, near the mouth of Salt River, and

[a] Now regarded as Cambrian.

the other at Grand River, a few miles west of Grand Rapids. Both wells, it may be stated, have proved failures, owing to the weakness of the brine.

The third annual report, of 111 pages, contained a description of the topography and geology of the portion of the Upper Peninsula bordering on Lakes Michigan and Huron, together with notices of the coal, iron, stone, and bog ores of the southern peninsula. The rocks of the Upper Peninsula were classified as primary and sedimentary, the latter being subdivided into a lower lime rock and shales and upper lime rocks.

The fourth annual report, 1841, was given up largely to articles by Doctor Houghton on the topography, geology, and mineralogy of the country bordering Lake Superior. This contained also a description of the mineral veins of the trap and conglomerate. Although not so stated here, it may be well to remark that Houghton regarded the copper-bearing veins of the Lake Superior region as fissure veins filled from below by the metal in a state of vapor or of compounds having their origin from copper in the native form.

The fifth annual report was limited to but six pages, owing to the fact that the appropriations by the legislature were curtailed, the country suffering under pressure of a financial crisis. Houghton was not, however, content to drop the work, and in 1844, in connection with W. A. Burt, devised a plan for connecting the linear surveys of the public lands of the United States with the geological and mineralogical survey of the country. This plan was fully set forth in a paper prepared and read by him before the Association of American Geologists at Washington in that year. Under the recommendation of the General Land Office Congress appropriated funds for the purpose, and Doctor Houghton was appointed to undertake the work. According to the plan thus agreed upon Mr. Burt was to take charge of running the township lines of the Upper Peninsula, the subdivisions to be made by deputy surveyors, and Doctor Houghton was to have the directorship of the entire work. The rocks crossed by lines were to be examined, and observations made as to the general geological and topographical features of the country. The system had been fairly organized and the field work of one season nearly completed when, on the 13th of October, 1845, Doctor Houghton met his death by drowning during a snowstorm, while making his way in an open sailboat along the west shore of Lake Superior.

Sketch of Houghton.

Houghton graduated in 1828 at what was then America's chief training school for geologists, the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, and was almost immediately appointed assistant to Professor Eaton. In 1830, having but just attained his majority, he delivered a course of lectures at Detroit on chemistry, botany, and geology, an example no man of several times his

age would care to follow to-day unless quite regardless of his reputation. But such was the condition of knowledge at that time. In 1831 he entered upon the practice of medicine, and soon after received the appointment of surgeon and botanist to the expedition under Schoolcraft for the discovery of the sources of the Mississippi. His public career as a scientific man began, therefore, with that date.

Houghton is described by his biographer[a] as a man of rather small stature, with hands and feet small and delicately formed; head large and well developed; with blue eyes, well sheltered underneath massive brows, and showing upon his ears, nostrils, and mouth scars from an accidental explosion of powder, which took place during some of his boyish experiments. In early life he had suffered severely from a hip disease which had left one leg a little short, though not sufficiently so to cause him to limp. His temperament was warm and nervous; his movements quick and earnest. Young, ardent, and generous to a fault, he seems to have made friends wherever he went, and soon became the most prominent and popular man in the State.

> Everywhere his ability and energy were acknowledged. No name throughout the distant and rural districts was so often uttered. His daring, his generous acts, his good humor, his racy stories were repeated everywhere. * * * Every man seemed to feel a pride in the growing celebrity of Houghton, and the familiar epithets "The little doctor," "Our Doctor Houghton," "The boy geologist of Michigan," became common throughout the State.

[a] Alvah Bradish, Memoir of Douglass Houghton, Detroit, 1889.

CHAPTER IV.

THE ERA OF STATE SURVEYS, SECOND DECADE, 1840-1849.

The fever for State surveys, so prevalent during the last decade, would seem to have very quickly subsided, since during the period now under consideration such were established only in Alabama, South Carolina, and Vermont. Governmental surveys were also few, being limited to those by D. D. Owen in the Chippewa land district, and Jackson, Foster, and Whitney in the Lake Superior region.

The cause of this sudden cessation is not quite apparent. Nine of the twenty-six States forming the Union at the beginning of the decade had, so to speak, escaped the contagion, and only the three above mentioned succumbed during the period, leaving Arkansas, Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Missouri still unprovided for. It is possible, and perhaps probable, that the period of great financial depression beginning in 1836 may have had something to do with it, but as nine of the sixteen inaugurated during the decade 1830–1840 were established either during 1836 or the three years immediately following, this is perhaps open to question. An important factor may have been the lack of geologists to agitate the subject and carry on the work, nearly every man of prominence and experience being engaged in surveys and organizations already under way. The period was, nevertheless, one of importance, one of manifest results rather than of organization and preparation.

The single event of greatest consequence during the decade was the appearance of the four quarto volumes constituting the final reports of Mather, Emmons, Hall, and Vanuxem of the New York survey, an event which would, however, have been paralleled by the reports of Rogers in Pennsylvania but for the dilatoriness of the State authorities. The volume of literature was naturally greater than at any previous period, since it included many of the reports of organizations of the previous decade, as those of Percival in Connecticut (1842), Booth in Delaware (1841), Jackson in New Hampshire (1844) and Rhode Island (1840), and Rogers in New Jersey (1840). The establishment of a geological survey of Canada in 1841, the coming of Lyell to America in the same year, the publication of his "Travels" in 1844, and the coming of Agassiz in 1846 should also be mentioned. The most noted of the participants in the events of the decade, as will be seen, were H. D. Rogers, then in full vigor; Edward Hitchcock,

mature and conservative; D. D. Owen, by all means the leader in reconnaissance work, and W. W. Mather. James Hall was rapidly forging to the front among paleontologists, while J. D. Dana, in the full flush of early manhood and fresh from the experiences of the Wilkes expedition, began the important series of papers dealing with the grander problems of earth history which soon placed him foremost in the ranks of American geologists and, indeed, among the geologists of the world.

Among the names which were to appear prominently in the decade will be found those of E. T. Cox, Ebenezer Emmons, J. P. Lesley, F. B. Meek, B. F. Shumard, Michael Tuomey, and J. D. Whitney.

Geology, at the opening of the decade, had found a place in the curricula of the leading colleges of the land, as at Bowdoin, in Maine; Amherst and Williams, in Massachusetts; Yale, in Connecticut; the Rensselaer Institute, in New York; the University of Virginia, at Charlottesville; the University of North Carolina, at Chapel Hill, and the College of South Carolina, at Columbia.

The Smithsonian Institution came into existence also during this period. The National Institute for the Promotion of Science and the Society of American Naturalists and Geologists were formed at the very beginning of the decade, the last named to be in 1847 merged into the American Association for the Advancement of Science. The retrospect was pleasing, the prospect encouraging.

Agassiz's Glacial Theory, 1840.

In 1840 an immense stride in the study of the drift deposits was made through the publication of Louis Agassiz's Études sur les Glaciers, a work comprising the results of his own study and observations combined with those of Jan de Charpentier, E. T. Venetz, and F. G. Hugi. The work was published in both French and German and brought to a focus, as it were, the scattered rays with which the obscure path of the glacial geologist had been heretofore spasmodically illuminated. But libraries in America were few and far between, the workers were poor, and many remained long in ignorance of the existence of the treatise or gained but a partial and imperfect idea of its contents through hearsay or brief reviews in periodicals.

The prevalent ideas on the subject of the drift have been from time to time given in these pages. It was Agassiz's idea, based upon observations in the Alps and the Juras, and what was known regarding existing conditions in northern Siberia, that at a period geologically very recent the entire hemisphere north of the thirty-fifth and thirty-sixth parallels had been covered by a sheet of ice possessing all the characteristics of existing glaciers in the Swiss Alps. Through this agency he would account for the loose beds of sand and gravel, the bowlder clays, erratics, and all the numerous phenomena within the region described which had heretofore been variously ascribed to the Noachian

deluge, the bursting of dams, the sudden melting of a polar ice cap, or even to cometary collisions with the earth.

Agassiz's ideas were favorably received by the majority of workers in Europe and Great Britain, though there was naturally a highly commendable feeling of caution against their too hasty acceptation. As a reviewer in the American Journal of Science has put it:

> These very original and ingenious speculations of Professor Agassiz must be held for the present to be under trial. They have been deduced from the limited number of facts observed by himself and others and skillfully generalized; but they can not be considered as fully established until they have been brought to the test of observation in different parts of the world and under a great variety of circumstances.

The effect of the publication was, however, soon apparent in American literature. Thus, in 1839 James Hall, then a young man of 28 and just coming into prominence in connection with the geological survey of New York, had, with all the confidence of youth, written upon the glacial deposits as they had come under his observation. Such he regarded as due to water action, but to the action of opposite and conflicting, rather than single, uniform currents. The great extent of the deposits and the evidence of long-continued wear shown by their materials proved to him that the force which produced them was not violent and sudden, but continued for an indefinite period.

Four years later (1843) Prof. Charles Dewey, writing on the striæ and furrows on the polished rocks of western New York, argued that, while the bowlders of the drift indicated that a mighty current had swept from north to south, the polishing and grooving might be due to glaciers as described by Agassiz.

> Glaciers or icebergs and the strong current of waters—a union of the two powerful causes—probably offers the least objectionable solution of those wonderful changes.

Though disposed thus to accept in part Agassiz's conclusions, Dewey yet failed to realize their full possibilities. He could not conceive how it was possible for a glacier to transport sandstone bowlders from the shore of Lake Ontario to the higher level of the hills to the southward. Bowlders of graywacke removed from the hills in the adjoining part of the State of New York and scattered throughout the Housatonic Valley furnished a like difficulty, since between the place of origin and that of deposit lay the Taconic range of mountains. "If," he wrote, "the bowlders were once lodged on the glacier, the ice and bowlders must have been transported by a flood to waters over the Taconic Mountains." The Richmond bowlder train, concerning which we shall have something to say later, was likewise a source of difficulty in his acceptation of Agassiz's theory.

At the April, 1841, meeting of the Society of American Geologists and Naturalists Mr. R. C. Taylor exhibited and described in detail a model of the western part of the southern coal field of Pennsylvania. This he stated to be the first model constructed in the United States.

Such being the case, it is worthy of remark that he regarded the then customary (and to some extent still prevailing) habit of exaggerating the vertical relief as "a hideous burlesque upon the actual aspect of the district represented or, rather, misrepresented," and that he had himself "for some time ceased to make any such difference between the horizontal and vertical scale." Taylor, it should be noted, was particularly active during the period 1831 to 1839, his papers relating almost wholly to economic problems and appearing largely in the Transactions of the Geological Society of Pennsylvania. His most pretentious publication was that entitled Statistics of Coal, a volume of 754 pages relating to the coal fields of the world, published in 1848.

R. C. Taylor and the First Geological Model, 1841.

Troost's sixth annual report as State geologist of Tennessee, a pamphlet of 48 pages, was made in October, 1841; his seventh, of 45 pages, in 1843; the eighth, of but 20 pages, in 1845; and the ninth and last in 1848. During the interval between his fifth and sixth reports he had become acquainted with the work of Sedgwick and Murchison in England, and the result is a slight modification of his views regarding the rocks of Tennessee. He now announced the conclusion that those rocks west of the line which separated Tennessee from the State of North Carolina, and previously classified by him as transition under the names of graywacke, etc., belong to Sedgwick's Cambrian system. The range known by the name of Bays Mountains, which extends into Tennessee for about 100 miles in a northeast and southwest direction, he believed to terminate this system toward the west. A few pages farther on he, however, thrust a doubt on this determination by writing:

Troost's Work in Tennessee, 1841.

> I consider * * * that Bays Mountain forms the upper part of the Cambrian system or that it perhaps belongs to the Old Red Sandstone; that thence toward the north of that mountain chain another formation commences, which is the Silurian system of Murchison.

To which of his particular subdivisions they should belong he was in doubt. He felt, however, it was possible they might be the equivalent of Murchison's Llandeilo flags (Upper Cambrian).

The oolitic limestones and siliceous strata toward the west of the Cumberland Mountains he thought to rest upon a continuation of the Silurian system, more generally known under the name of "mountain limestone." This he made to extend over the whole of middle Tennessee to a few miles east of the Tennessee River.

In his seventh annual report he announced that the region about Nashville was composed of strata belonging to the Silurian system, and mentioned the fossils which he considered as characteristic of the lowest strata. In this report he gave a detail colored geological map of Davidson, Williamson, and Maury counties.

Troost's collection of fossil Echinodermata containing all his types and species described in what is known as Troost's list of 1850,

together with the unfinished manuscript relating thereto, passed after his death in 1850 into the custody of the Smithsonian Institution, by which it was handed over first to Agassiz, and several years later to James Hall, to be put into shape for publication. For reasons unknown to the public this work was delayed year after year, until, after the death of Hall, in his turn (in 1894), it once more came into the possession of the Institution. In the meantime all that was new had been elsewhere described. Thus, through sheer neglect, Troost was robbed of much of the credit to which he was justly entitled.

Hitchcock on Drift Phenomena in North America, 1842.

In 1842 Dr. Edward Hitchcock read an important paper before the Boston meeting of the American Association of Geologists on the Phenomena of the Drift in North America, which is particularly interesting at this time as showing the gradual evolution of the present theory from that of the Noachian-deluge idea advocated by earlier writers. Hitchcock's views had, of course, been influenced by those of such men as Charpentier, Agassiz, Buckland, and Murchison, and he expressed at the outset the conviction that nearly all geologists would "agree in the principle that the phenomena of drift are the result of joint and alternate action of ice and water." To express this joint and alternate action he made use of the term "glacio-aqueous."

In this paper Hitchcock devoted some 50 pages to a description and discussion of, first, transported bowlders; second, smooth, polished, and striated rocks; third, embossed rocks; fourth, valleys or erosion; fifth, moraines; sixth, detritus of moraines; seventh, deposits of clay and sand; eighth, contortions of the stratified deposits; ninth, terraced valleys; tenth, fractured rocks; and eleventh, organic remains, after which he proceeded to discuss the theories of the various European authorities and state his agreement or objections to the same. He objected to the theory of Lyell to the effect that the results observed by him in North America were produced by floating icebergs derived from glaciers formed on mountains as the land gradually emerged from the ocean, because, first, it failed to account for the lower temperature which was necessary; second, because there was no evidence that the glaciers descended from the mountains; and third, because the deposits of vegetable matter derived from land plants showed that the continent must have been above sea level long before the drift period. The theory of De la Beche, which supposed the contents of the northern ocean to have been precipitated over the countries farther south by the elevation of the polar regions, Hitchcock regarded as possibly applicable to the low countries of Europe, but not to New England, since it would require a rise of the ocean amounting to some 6,000 feet, and he could find no facts to justify such an assumption, although recognizing the fact that the aqueo-glacial agency had operated well over the summits of the White Mountains.

To Agassiz's theory, which supposed an immense accumulation of ice and snow around the poles during the Glacial period and a consequent sending out of enormous glaciers in a southern direction, followed by floods of water and transportation of icebergs on return of a warmer period, he likewise took exception, since he was unable to conceive how such effects could be brought about; nor, indeed, could he understand how such causes could operate when the land was rising from the ocean and the water consequently retreating, as it must have been, to account for the various observed phenomena — such phenomena as would necessitate the occurrence of water loaded with ice and detritus floating for centuries at least over a large part of the earth's surface.

He likewise objected to Maclaren's "ingenious amalgamation" of Lyell and Agassiz's theories, but failed himself to suggest one perfectly satisfactory.

His paper showed a very clear insight into what had taken place, but an inability, with the information at that time available, to account for it in a satisfactory manner. Thus, in describing the striæ found by himself on the top of hills and mountains like Monadnoc, he wrote:

> Could immense icebergs have been stranded on the northern slope of the hills and afterwards, by the force of currents, have been driven over the summits; or would it be necessary to suppose that, after the stranding, the water must have risen so as to lift up the iceberg; or would a vast sheet of ice lying upon the earth's surface, by mere expansion, without the presence of water, have been able to produce the smoothing and furrowing in question?

He regarded the moraines as deposited by floating icebergs and the linear forms observed as identical with the osars of Sweden. The fine blue stratified clay, often overlaid by sand, so characteristic of the upper valleys of the rivers in the glaciated areas, he regarded as silt deposited in temporary lakes formed by the damming of valleys by drift materials. After considering the phenomena as observed by himself and weighing all the theories advanced from time to time by the authorities quoted, he summed up the matter in the following words:

> Is it not possible that the phenomena of the drift may have resulted from all the causes advanced in the theories under consideration. * * I feel * * * that the proximate cause of the phenomena of drift has at last been determined, namely, the joint action of water and ice.

This is true Hitchcock conservatism.

Conrad's work in Florida, 1842.

In 1842 an expedition under Captain Powell was sent out by the Secretary of the Navy to survey Tampa Bay, Florida. Through the influence of the National Institute, in Washington, T. A. Conrad was allowed to accompany the party for the purpose of examining into the geology of the region. Conrad remained on the coast some three months, his results being published in the American Journal of Science for 1846.

From paleontological evidence Conrad was led to consider the limestone of the Savannah River in Georgia between Savannah and Shell Bluff as Upper Eocene, and thought that very probably the prevailing limestone of Florida would be included in this division. He also found evidence to lead him to believe that a considerable post-Pliocene elevation of the whole Florida peninsula had taken place, and that the Florida keys were a product of this movement.

D. D. Owen on the Geology of the Western States, 1842.

At the fourth annual meeting of the Association of American Geologists and Naturalists D. D. Owen read a paper on the geology of the Western States, including under this designation the region of the Ohio Valley. Abstracts of this paper appeared in the American Journal of Science for 1843. At the November (1842) meeting of the Geological Society of London Mr. Lyell presented for Doctor Owen the same paper, which was afterwards published in the journal of that society under date of 1846. It seems proper, therefore, that this paper should receive consideration here, particularly since Owen attempted a correlation of the American rocks with those from Europe. As published, the paper was accompanied by a colored geological map

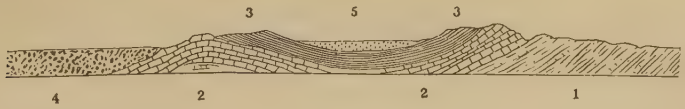


FIG. 32.—General section across the Western States. (After D. D. Owen.) 5, diluvium; 4, marl and greensand, probably cretaceous; 3, bituminous coal formation; 2, carboniferous limestone of Europe; 1, probable equivalents of the Silurian rocks.

of the Ohio Valley and the generalized section shown in fig. 32. The attempts at correlation, it should be noted, were founded on paleontological data. The limestones immediately underlying the coal (3 of the section) he considered to be the equivalent of the European Carboniferous. These rested upon a series of rocks, the upper one hundred feet of which Hall had assigned to the Devonian. The middle and lower beds Owen regarded as the equivalent of the English Upper Ludlow, as defined by Murchison. Below this he found shales which he believed to be equivalent to the English Lower Ludlow and the New York Marcellus shale. The shale-bearing rock he regarded as the equivalent of the Wenlock formation of Murchison.

The fundamental rocks of the Ohio Valley he considered as the equivalents of Murchison's Lower Silurian, the lower 75 to 100 feet corresponding to the Llandeilo flags and the rest to the Caradoc sandstones. The corresponding formations of New York appeared to be the Trenton limestone and shale, representing the older series, and the Salmon River and Pulaski sandstone, the rest.

Perhaps the most important outcome of the geological surveys of Pennsylvania and Virginia and certainly, from a strictly scientific

standpoint, the most important and far-reaching conclusions, were those put forward by W. B. and H. D. Rogers in a paper read before the Association of Geologists and Naturalists in 1842, entitled On the physical structure of the Appalachian chain as exemplifying the laws which have regulated the elevation of great mountain chains generally. They called attention to the fact that the chain consists of a broad zone of very numerous ridges of nearly equal height, characterized by their great length, narrowness, steepness of slope, evenness of summit, and a remarkable parallelism. They divided the chain on topographical and structural grounds into nine distinct divisions, consisting of alternating straight and curved portions. They noted the remarkable preponderance of southeastern dips throughout the entire length, although the general trend of the chain was northeast and southwest. This was particularly characteristic of the portion along the southeastern or most disturbed portion of the belt, but toward the northwest dips in the opposite direction became less steep and more numerous.

H. D. and W. B. Rogers on Appalachian Structure, 1842.

They accounted for the phenomena of these dips by assuming them to be due to a series of unsymmetrical flexures, presenting in most instances steeper or more rapid arching on the northwest than southeast side of every convex bend; and, as a direct consequence, a steeper incurvation on the southeast than northwest side of every concave turn; so that, when viewed together, a series of these flexures has the form of an obliquely undulating line, in which the apex of each upper curve lies in advance of the center of the arch. On the southeastern side of the chain, where the curvature is most sudden, and the flexures are most closely crowded, they present a succession of alternately convex and concave folds, in each of which the lines of greatest dip on the opposite sides of the axes approach to parallelism and have a nearly uniform inclination of from 45° to 60° toward the southeast. This they described as a *doubling-under or inversion* of the northwestern half of each anticlinal flexure. Crossing the mountain chain from any point toward the northwest, they noted that the form of the flexures changes; the close inclined plication of the rocks producing their uniformly southeastern dip gradually lessens, the folds open out, and the northwestern side of each convex flexure, instead of being abruptly doubled under and inverted, becomes either vertical or dips steeply to the northwest. Advancing still farther in the same direction into the region occupied by the higher formations of the Appalachian series, the arches and troughs grow successively rounder and gentler, and the dips on the opposite side of each anticlinal axis gradually diminish and approach more and more to equality, until, in the great coal field west of the Allegheny Mountains, they finally flatten down to an almost absolutely horizontality of

the strata at a distance of about 150 miles from the chain of the Blue Ridge or South Mountain.

This work, so far as it relates to the structure of the chain, has been improved upon in recent times only by the discovery of enormous overthrust faults in the southwestern portions. Their ideas regarding the origin of the chain have not, however, so successfully withstood the work of the modern physicists. They assumed that this difference in the dips was due to a combined undulatory and tangential movement of the earth's crust, which was propagated from the southeast toward the northwest; that is, they regarded the various ranges composing the chain as actually stiffened waves or billows of crustal matter comparable to the waves of less viscous matter, like water or lava. Their views may be best understood by direct quotation:

> We assume that in every region where a system of flexures prevails the crust originally rested on a widely extended surface of fluid lava. Let it be supposed that subterranean causes competent to produce the result, such, for example, as the accumulation of a vast body of elastic vapors and gases, subjected the disturbed portion of the belt to an excessive upward tension, causing it to give way at successive times in a series of long parallel rents. By the sudden and explosive escape of the gaseous matter, the prodigious pressure, previously exerted on the surface of the fluid within, being instantly withdrawn, this would rise along the whole line of fissure in the manner of an enormous billow and suddenly lift with it the overlying flexible crust. Gravity, now operating on the disturbed lava mass, would engender a violent undulation of its whole contiguous surface, so that wave would succeed wave in regular and parallel order, flattening and expanding as they advanced, and imparting a corresponding billowy motion to the overlying strata. Simultaneously with each epoch of oscillation, while the whole crust was thus thrown into parallel flexures, we suppose the undulating tract to have been shoved bodily forward and secured in its new position by the permanent intrusion into the rent and dislocated region behind of the liquid matter injected by the same forces that gave origin to the waves. This forward thrust, operating upon the flexures formed by the waves, would steepen the advanced side of each wave precisely as the wind, acting on the billows of the ocean, forces forward their crests and imparts a steeper slope to their leeward sides. A repetition of these forces by augmenting the inclination on the front of every wave would result finally in the folded structure, with inversion in all the parts of the belt adjacent to the region of principal disturbance. Here an increased amount of plication would be caused, not only by the superior violence of the forward horizontal force, but by the production in this district of many lesser groups of waves interposed between the larger ones and not endowed with sufficient momentum to reach the remoter sides of the belt. To this interpolation we attribute, in part, the crowded condition of the axes on the side of the undulated district which borders the region where the rents and dikes occur, and to it we trace the far greater variety which there occurs in the size of the flexures.

The date of the Appalachian uplift they put subsequent to the formation of the Coal Measures, as being the final paroxysmal movement which terminated "in that stupendous train of actions which lifted the whole Appalachian chain from the bed of the ancient sea."

H. D. Rogers on the Formation of Coal, 1842.

At this same meeting of the Association H. D. Rogers gave an important paper on the origin of the coal beds. He here took the ground that the singular constancy in thickness of the Pittsburg coal bed and its prodigious range were strongly adverse to any theory of accumulation by drift. His idea was that the area now covered by the coal was once an extensive flat, bordering a continent, beyond which lay a wide expanse of shallow but open sea; that these low flats were occupied by peat bogs derived from and supporting a luxuriant growth of Stigmaria, while along the land margin and the drier areas were conifers, Lycopods, and tree ferns. The Stigmaria would thus form a uniform mass of pulpy peat admixed with leaves and other easily transported débris of the trees along the shores, but free from trunks and coarse branches.

To account for the shaly and sandy partings of the coal beds and their numerous impressions of plants, he imagined a sudden sinking of the land, producing thus a tidal wave from the open sea, carrying destruction to the forest growths, and on its return dragging back and spreading out over the sea bottom, and hence over the accumulated peat beds, sand, gravel, and silt, together with floating trunks of trees, all of which go to make up the roof slate and other partings in the beds. A period of tranquillity followed; another bed of peat accumulated, and so on. His theory differed from those of Buckland, Beaumont, Lyell, and others in excluding from the coal-making materials the trunks and branches of the more woody trees and the catastrophic interruptions in the growing processes due to earth sinkings and earthquakes.

He further accounted for the difference in volatile constituents between the coal of the eastern and western beds on the supposition that the former were debituminized by the action of steam and gaseous matter emitted through the crust of the earth and cracks and crevices formed during the undulation and permanent bending of the strata, resulting in the formation of mountain ranges.

W. B. Rogers on Thermal Springs, 1842.

Prof. W. B. Rogers, at this same meeting of the association, had an important paper on the connection of the thermal springs, in Virginia, with the anticlinal axes and faults. He recognized the work of the European geologists in connecting similar phenomena with areas of terrestrial disturbance, and then proceeded to show that, with but few exceptions, the thermal springs of the Appalachian region issue from the steep dipping or inverted strata on the northwest side of the anticlines. From this he deduced the general law that the decidedly thermal springs of Virginia issue from the lines of anticlinal axes or from points very near such lines. These views he regarded as in harmony with those of Arago and Bischoff. From those of Daubeny they differed, seemingly, in that the latter regarded such springs as indicative of volcanic

eruptions going on in a covert and languid manner under certain parts of the range. But Daubeny, it must be remembered, carried his views to an extreme, regarding the uplift of the chain itself as due to these same volcanic forces.

J. P. Couthouy on Coral Growth, 1842.

In 1842 there appeared in the Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History a paper by J. P. Couthouy, one of the naturalists of the Wilkes Exploring Expedition, in which an attempt was made to show that the distribution of coral growth in the ocean was limited by temperature. This paper brought forth very promptly a reply from Dana, who, while agreeing as to the facts and theories, claimed that he (Couthouy) had simply borrowed the idea from him; that the explanation "was originally derived from my manuscript, which was laid open most confidentially for his perusal while at the Sandwich Islands in 1840." The assertion was, of course, denied by Couthouy with equal promptness, but it must be confessed that the evidence, so far as it is available, favors Dana's claim.

Dana, it should be remarked, was led, from his observations while on this expedition, to agree with Darwin as to the formation of atolls (annular coral reefs), but could not agree with him regarding regions of subsidence and elevation. He found nothing which to him supported the idea that islands with barrier reefs were subsiding, while those with fringing reefs were rising.

Byrd Powell's work in the Fourche Cove region of Arkansas, 1842.

In the summer of 1842 Dr. W. Byrd Powell, of Little Rock, passed, of his own volition, some six weeks in a study of the geology of the Fourche Cove region, his results being published in a pamphlet of 23 pages and map, by the Antiquarian and Natural History Society of Arkansas. The Doctor at the time of his writing occupied the position of lecturer on phrenology and geology. Whatever may have been his qualification in the first-named subject, as a geologist he was no whit above the majority of workers of his day. The rocks of the cove and their association were described in considerable detail, the prevailing syenite being called granite, although he noted that it contained no quartz. He differed with Featherstonhaugh, however, in assuming, and wrongly, that the rock was primitive and not intrusive. To a supposed transitional form of greenstone into basalt he gave the name *Cornean*. The other rocks noted were basaltic clinkstone, amygdaloid, gneiss, etc. Some of his observations are open to question. Less than a gill of mica from the gneiss, he announced, yielded him half an ounce of metal, which he considered as mostly iron. He further remarked that the hornblende rocks of the region contained a large percentage of iron, which was chiefly, if not wholly, native; also that they contained native lead and a little silver.

The organization of the geological survey of the State of New York

in 1836 has already been noted. Annual reports were issued regularly during the period of its existence, but with one or two exceptions the results can be best summed up in a review of the final reports as they appeared in 1842–43. Of these final reports, which were issued in quarto form, Mather's, comprising 639 pages, with 46 plates, in part colored, and including a geological map, was one of the most voluminous.

State Geological Survey of New York, 1837–1843.

The first geological district, to which Mather was assigned, embraced twenty-one counties, extending from the northeast of Washington County between lakes Champlain and George southwesterly to the Susquehanna River so as to include the counties of Washington, Saratoga, Schenectady, Schoharie, and Delaware, and all of the State east and south of this line.

Mather's Work in New York.

Mather thought to have recognized seven periods of elevation and disturbance of the strata, exemplified in the district assigned to him. These he described as follows:

First. One preceding the laying down of the earliest fossiliferous rocks, which gave rise to the primary Highlands of the Hudson and the primary mountains of Saratoga and Washington counties. On this he found the Potsdam and Calciferous sandstones and black limestone resting unconformably.

Second. One which preceded the deposition of the Helderberg limestone, which he found lying unconformably on the upturned earlier rocks. This manifested itself mainly in the Hudson Valley and included the Highlands and Westchester County.

Third. One subsequent to the deposition of the rocks of the Ontario division, the effects of which he thought to recognize from Green Pond Mountain through Bellevale Mountain, Goose Pond, Sugar Loaf, and Skunnemunk Mountains, and along the Shawangunk Mountains.

Fourth. One subsequent to the deposition of the Catskill division and even the coal formation. This disturbed all the pre-existing rocks in New York east of the Delaware. To it he ascribed the bending and wrinkling of the coal formations in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. The era of disturbance was regarded as between that of the coal and the New Red sandstone.

Fifth. A period of disturbance at the end of the deposition of the Long Island division and before the deposition of the Quaternary.

Sixth. A period between the drift and Quaternary by which the land, without deformation, was lifted to about the level of the Quaternary formations.

Seventh. A period after the deposition of the Quaternary by which a large part of the land was lifted 100 feet above the level of the oceanic waters.

He thought, also, to recognize four periods of metamorphic agency, though, singularly enough, his metamorphism was that of contact by

igneous masses only, and hence his periods those of igneous intrusion. To the then ordinarily accepted causes of folding, elevation, and depression, as steam and elastic vapors in a high state of tension, the contraction of the earth by secular refrigeration, or the undulatory action of the fluid interior, combined with tangential force—Mather added a fourth. He conceived that, as the earth is a cooling and shrinking body and revolving with increased rapidity owing to its diminished diameter, the ocean, being fluid, would not immediately partake of this increased velocity, and, therefore, as the earth revolved from west to east, a current of greater or less strength would set to the westward over the whole ocean, but strongest at the equator. The inertia of the solid mass of the interior of the globe would also cause it to press to the westward with a power dependent upon the rapidity of rotation. Given, then, lines of weakness where yielding would take place, motion and distortion or elevation might follow. If the interior were fluid and the solid exterior floating upon it, a change in the velocity would produce still stronger effects and changes of latitude of masses of the earth's surface affected in this way would result. Evidences of this were seen in the wrinkled and folded strata.

Some 75 pages of Mather's report were given up to a description and discussion of the phenomena of the drift. He concluded that the transport of the drift and the production of scratched surfaces were contemporaneous, the drift itself being transported in part by currents and in part by ice, itself drifted by the currents. The period of the drift and that of the Quaternary deposits were separated by a partial submergence of the land; and further, the periods of the drift were periods when the currents were stronger than at the present time. He conceived this to be due to a collapse of the crust of the globe upon its nucleus by refrigeration, causing an acceleration of the velocity of rotation, "and this a consequent disturbance of the form of equilibrium of the spheroid of rotation, which would be compensated by the flow from the polar regions and an accelerated flow of the equatorial regions." This sudden acceleration of the ocean currents he felt would be sufficient to cause the transportation of vast quantities of detritus-laden ice from the polar regions southward.

The large amount of drift scattered over the central and northern Mississippi region he ascribed incidentally to ice-laden currents from Hudson Bay and the polar seas which, flowing over the northern part of the United States, would be met by the warm waters of the Gulf Stream, causing them to deposit their loads. The warm current flowing northward would be superimposed on the cold current, the latter continuing southward beneath it, transporting the finer materials such as now occupy the lower Mississippi Valley. It may be added that Mather's disposition to overload and overwork the Gulf Stream is somewhat amusing. Not merely did he ascribe the glacial drift and

the New Red sandstone deposits to this agency, but he would have the entire sedimentary series of the New York system dependent on the same causes. Thus, writing of these rocks: "And we can perceive no region from which such a vast amount of mineral matter can have been abraded and washed away * * * unless it has been brought by the equatorial and polar currents in their ceaseless flow through all time since the ocean has occupied the surface of the earth." Again: "And these depositions seem to have been formed in a kind of eddy produced by the meeting of the flow of warm waters of the Gulf Stream through the Mohawk Valley with the polar current through the Champlain and Hudson valleys." To the presence of this cold polar current on the east he attributed also the comparative paucity of fossil remains in these rocks when compared with those same horizons to the west, and to the same joint action of polar and equatorial currents, the formation of the coal beds. The equatorial current, he argued, performed a circuit around from New Mexico along the Rocky Mountains, a part flowing into the polar sea and Hudson Bay and the remainder through the northern part of the United States and southern part of Canada, where it again divided, one part flowing over and through the St. Lawrence Valley and the remainder over the Mohawk Valley and along the Blue Ridge around once more to the Mississippi, where it would rejoin the same stream, a polar current meantime flowing through the St. Lawrence and Hudson valleys to the valleys of the Red River of the North and the Mississippi. The meeting of these currents at particular points would produce eddies and consequent stagnation of the current. The transported organic matter, becoming water-logged, would sink to the bottom. This mode of formation, he thought, would account for the presence of tropical vegetation in the polar regions.

The white, red, mottled brown, and blue clays and variegated sands of Long and Staten islands he regarded as the geological equivalents of certain beds of New Jersey underlying the drift and Quaternary and of Cretaceous age. The materials he thought to have been derived from the breaking down of the gneissic, granitic, and other crystalline siliceous rocks which extend parallel to the Atlantic chain from Georgia to Maryland and reappear again in Connecticut and Rhode Island, extending probably into Massachusetts. This material, to him, bore evidence of transport from the southwest, and he believed the Gulf Stream, as before, to have been the transporting agent, its velocity being checked by the southward-traveling polar current. These cold currents sinking to the bottom would not be conducive to growth of animal life, and hence the beds are comparatively nonfossiliferous.

Mather believed that during the Quaternary division of time a vast inland sea occupied the basin of the St. Lawrence and Hudson valleys, and that during this time the clays and marls were laid down,

the water having only a very moderate flow; that subsequently the country was raised en masse to a height of from 300 to 1,000 feet. This elevation he conceived to have been sudden, causing strong currents to flow through the channels communicating with the ocean, depositing sand, gravel, and bowlders in their eddies. (See further on p. 394.)

He also believed that the limestones, that are frequently crystalline white and variegated marbles in the western part of Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, were metamorphosed forms of the Mohawk limestone and Calciferous sandstone; that they were, in short, rocks of the Champlain division, but much more highly altered and modified by metamorphic agency than Taconic rocks. It should be said that, while using the term "Taconic" and describing the rocks and their distribution, Mather stated distinctly that he regarded the Champlain division and the Taconic systems as the "same rocks, the latter somewhat modified in character by metamorphic agencies."

In describing the Taconic rocks separately I have yielded to the opinion of my colleagues who have considered them as interposed between the Champlain division and the primary. I can discover no evidence of any such interposition, but consider them as rocks modified by metamorphic agency and intermediate in their characteristics between the unchanged rocks of the Champlain division and those still more altered and crystalline along the eastern line of New York and in the western part of Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut. (See also under The Taconic Question, p. 659.)

The trap rocks of the Hudson Palisades he looked upon as ancient lavas that had flowed through the rock fissures in dikes while this part of the continent was still beneath the waters of the ocean. These rocks and the associated red sandstones he rightly believed to be of the same age as those of Connecticut, Virginia, and Nova Scotia, though he wrongly put down the Lake Superior red sandstone as also a contemporaneous deposit.

Emmons's work in New York.

Emmons, who had charge of the second district, presented his results in a quarto volume of 437 pages, with 17 plates and colored sections. It was during this survey that he proposed the name New York Transition system for the stratigraphic series of rocks extending from the primary up to and including the Old Red sandstone. Subsequently this name was shortened by the omission of the word *transition*, and in this form was adopted by the other members of the survey. He classified the rocks of this system in ascending order as, first, Champlain division; second, Ontario division; third, Helderberg division; and, fourth, Erie division. The first, or Champlain, division included the Potsdam sandstone, the Calciferous sand rock, the Chazy and Birdseye limestone, the Isle la Motte marble, Trenton limestone, and Loraine shales. The second, or Ontario division, included the Medina sandstone, green shales, and oolitic iron ore, now known as the Clinton ore, the Onon-

daga salt and plaster rocks, and the Manlius water lime. The third included the Pentamerus lime, the Oriskany sand, Schoharie grits, and Helderberg limestone. The fourth included the Marcellus and Hamilton shales, the Tulley lime, Genesee slate, and the Ithaca and Chemung slates and grits.

He regarded the transition rocks of Essex and St. Lawrence counties as equivalent to the graywacke series of European authorities. The so-called primitive limestone -the peculiar, coarsely crystalline, serpentinous limestone occurring in Essex County—he conceived might be an eruptive rock in which the carbonic acid had been retained by the pressure of superincumbent masses, the experiment of Sir James Hall, as he believed, bearing him out in this. The occurrence of plumbago he also regarded as favoring the igneous origin of the limestone, since plumbago is itself so often produced in furnaces.

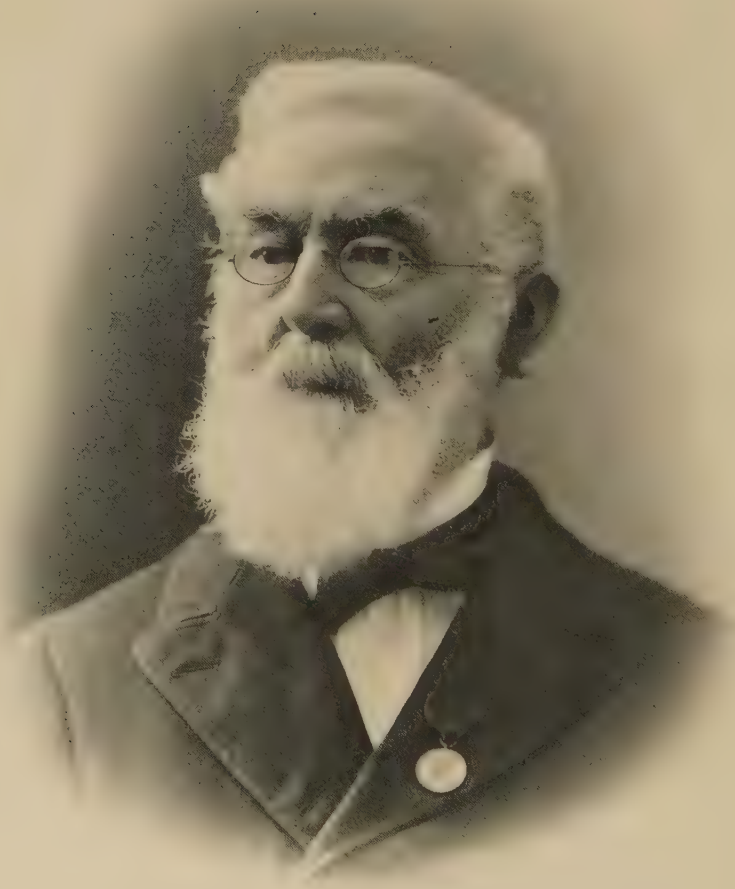
He believed the agent of drift transportation to be water and ice. The bowlders he thought to be the work of icebergs, but he did not regard the striations and polishing as due to them, since the bottom of the ocean is not bare rock but covered by débris; and, moreover, icebergs would not move in straight lines (a point which some more recent writers have quite overlooked.) The bergs might act as agents of transportation, he argued, but not of erosion. According to his ideas, the drift-covered region was, during the drift period, depressed,

> the country low and connected at the north with a wide and extensive region, giving rise to large rivers, which flowed in succession over different parts of the region lying between Champlain and the St. Lawrence. These rivers were wide, shallow, and swift in some parts of their courses, and frequently found new channels. They communicated with the Atlantic on the south through the Champlain, Hudson, and Mohawk valleys. They bore along ice loaded with sand, pebbles, etc., which scratched and grooved the surface of rocks over which they flowed, and were the agents, also, of perforating the rocks in the form of potholes.

Emmons was, at this time, a catastrophist, going so far as to assert that the deep canyons in the Potsdam sandstone, like the Au Sable chasm, were "opened by some convulsion of nature."

It was while connected with the New York State survey that Emmons conceived the idea that a series of obscure rocks, forming a belt some fifteen miles wide along the western border of Berkshire County, and lying along both sides of the Taconic Mountains, were distinct from any of the so-called primary rocks, and lay below those of the New York system. He therefore proposed, on stratigraphic grounds, to raise these rocks to the dignity of a system by themselves, which should be called the Taconic system. Inasmuch as the controversy which arose over this new system raged vigorously for nearly half a century, the subject is considered worthy of a special chapter. (See p. 659.)

Vanuxem's report on the third district, a volume of 306 pages, consisted of little more than an uninteresting account of the geographic



JAMES HALL.
State Geologist of New York.

distribution of the various rocks and their fossil contents. In fact, it fell short of what one would be led to expect from a perusal of his earlier papers. His district, it should be noted, comprised the counties of Montgomery, Fulton, Otsego, Herkimer, Oneida, Lewis, Oswego, Madison, Onondaga, Cayuga, Cortland, Chenango, Broome, Tioga, and the eastern half of Tompkins.

Vanuxem's work in New York.

As a matter of petrographical interest, it may be well to note that the serpentine described by Vanuxem [first in his third annual report (1839) and last in his final volume (1842)] as occurring near Syracuse, and concerning the origin of which he was then somewhat in doubt, was in 1844 described as an igneous rock, and as the only mass of the kind in the vicinity of the Salt Spring. This fact seems to have been quite overlooked by Williams in 1887, when, working with all the appliances of modern petrography, he showed the rock to be an altered peridotite.

To James Hall was assigned the fourth district in the New York State Survey at the close of the first season, as already noted (p. 344). This comprised fifteen counties, including all that part of the State lying west of the parallel of Cayuga Lake and between Lake Ontario on the north and Pennsylvania on the southeast. The area includes the least disturbed portions of the State, those portions where the rocks lie in a beautiful consecutive series, extending from the Medina up to and including the Chemung and affording means unrivaled for the unraveling of the stratigraphy of the continent. It is doubtful if, at the time this district was assigned to Hall, he himself realized its possibilities—certainly his collaborators did not. Indeed, at the time of Vanuxem's transfer and Hall's promotion the region was regarded as one of little promise and was willingly relinquished to the youngest and least experienced of the force.

Hall's Work in New York.

Hall's report, appearing in 1843, comprised 683 octavo pages, with 19 plates, including a colored geological map of the State and the United States as far west as the Mississippi River.

Hall adopted the term New York system, as suggested by Emmons, to include all the oldest fossiliferous rocks of the State, excluding the Chemung and Catskill. As defined by him it would be the equivalent of what was embraced in the *transition* of Werner. It likewise included Sedgwick's Cambrian, Murchison's Silurian, and the Devonian of Phillips, omitting the Old Red sandstone.

Concerning this he wrote:

> Nowhere is there known to exist so complete a series of the older fossiliferous rocks as those embraced within the limits of the State, and for the reason that in New York, where the means of investigation are best afforded and where the whole series is undisturbed, there is manifested the most complete and continuous succes-

sion, showing but one geological era for the deposition of the whole. In that era the earth first witnessed the dawn of animal life and ages of its greatest fecundity in marine organisms and the approach of the period when it became fitted to support a vegetation so luxuriant and universal, of which no modern era has afforded a parallel.

Hall, it should be noted, in this report, gave precedence to paleontological characters over all others in distinguishing the sedimentary strata, but recognized the fact that lithological characters must not be wholly disregarded, a fact to which he had previously called attention (p. 383)

> Changes in the lithological features of a rock * * * which may render observations unsatisfactory or doubtful are usually accompanied by greater or less change in the nature of the fossils. In no case, therefore, are to be overlooked either of the three important facts and characters, viz: Lithological character, order of superposition, and nature of the contained fossils.

At the time of making his report Hall's views regarding the drift were still somewhat hazy. That he did not accept Agassiz's doctrine of a vast ice sheet is very evident. Thus he wrote:

> That blocks of granite either enclosed in ice or moved by other means have been the principal agents affecting the diluvial phenomena; that they have scored and grooved the rocks in their passage and, breaking up the strata and mingling themselves with the mass, have been driven onward, carrying everything before them in one general mêlée. That such may have been the case in some instances or in limited localities can not be denied, but that it ever has been over any great extent of country will scarcely admit of proof.

The erratics he felt had been dropped from time to time by ice floes and at a period apparently distant from that of the general drift.

Hall was at this time evidently a catastrophist and regarded the drift soils, terraces, and the deep valleys and water courses as due to the violent action of water, which may have been caused in part by a sudden submergence and the rapid passage of a wave over its surface. His views were, indeed, in many respects, little, if any, in advance of those held by Mitchill twenty-five years earlier. Like Mitchill, he conceived of an inland sea bounded by and held back, in this case, by the Canadian Highlands on the north, the New England range on the east, the Highlands of New York and the Alleghenies on the south, and the Rocky Mountains on the west. These presented a barrier of from 1,000 to 1,200 feet above the level of the ocean until broken through by the St. Lawrence, the Susquehanna, the Hudson, partially by the Mohawk at Little Falls, and perhaps also by the Connecticut.

> But, to whatever cause we attribute the phenomena of the superficial detritus of the fourth district, the whole surface has been permanently covered by water, for it seems impossible that partial inundations could have produced the uniform character and disposition of the materials which we find spread over the surface.

Hall apparently failed at first to realize the efficacy of subaerial erosion, and thought that the immense amount of denudation which had taken place in his portion of the State could only have been accom-

plished beneath the ocean, when it entirely covered the surface of the country and was subject to tides and currents like the present ocean.

Thus we may conceive this whole extent of country to have been submerged beneath the ocean for a long period; and that in its subsequent elevation it has been washed by the advancing and retiring waves, which have worn the deep indentations in the limestone cliffs and broken up the edges of the strata.

Hall was born at Hingham, Massachusetts, in 1811, and studied under Eaton at the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, graduating in 1832, after which he served for a short time as librarian, and was then appointed assistant to Eaton, at a salary of $600 a year.

Sketch of James Hall.

His first systematic work in geology was done under the patronage of Stephen Van Rensselaer in St. Lawrence County. With the organization of the State geological survey in 1836 he was appointed assistant to Emmons, but, after the withdrawal of Conrad, was placed in charge of the fourth district—

the level, uninteresting western portion of the State, which he was told was good enough for a young man of twenty-five. The region was not the western New York of to-day; roads were less numerous and less carefully made; exposures were rare and poor. It was necessary to wade along streams for miles to gain fragments which were to be pieced into tentative sections; the people were suspicious, fearing some new scheme for increasing the taxes; but none of these things moved him; as in later years, difficulties only increased his determination. So his is the only one of the four final reports which deals broadly with the problems of the young science, and, though upon the contemned fourth district, it is the only one which has endured with authority and become a classic in geological literature.

FIG. 33.—James Hall.

The final withdrawal of Conrad from even the paleontological work left Hall almost sole master of the field, which he for a time filled so completely that he came to regard it as his own, and resented fiercely any intrusion upon his domain. This resentment and his desire to gain priority in all matters relative to Paleozoic paleontology caused him at times to resort to methods so questionable as to rouse the antagonism of nearly every paleontologist in America,[a] and subjected him to criticism of the severest kind. Undoubtedly a portion of the hatred and opposition to him which early became manifest was the outgrowth of that peculiar jealousy which the poet Riley has so aptly set forth in his humorous rhyme:

And I've known some to lie and wait,
And git up soon and set up late,
To find some fellow they could hate
For going at a faster gait.

[a] See Meek's comments relative to Hall's work in Iowa, and also statements on p. 367 relative to the Troost collection.

Much of it was, however, unquestionably fully justified.

His disposition to down an opponent through sheer weight of personal authority rather than by proof or argument sometimes resulted in placing him in laughable and awkward positions before his audience, but from which he always emerged unembarrassed. Thus it is told of him that at the Buffalo meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science a member rose to question a statement of his to the effect that three species of Spirifer characterized three zones of the Chemung formation, the gentleman affirming that, so far from this being the case, the three species could often be found upon one slab, indicating that they belong to the same zone. This Hall emphatically denied, and declared that if such a slab could be shown him, i. e., with the three species associated, he, Hall, would eat it. The next day such a slab was actually produced, though it is not upon record that Hall was called upon to redeem his promise.

He was a man of tremendous physical energy, whom no amount of opposition could down, and on the failure of the legislature in 1850 to make the necessary appropriations for a paleontological survey of the State he carried it on for a time at his own expense, even when this involved the sacrifice of his private means.

Stevenson would have us believe that the fundamental feature of Hall's character was "child-like simplicity united to self-confidence and indomitable energy." With reference to the last-mentioned qualities no one will take exception.

> Knowing what he wanted he took a direct line, with little regard for anybody or anything which might be in the way to oppose. * * * He deceived his opponents by always telling the truth, something strange to politicians, but in time they came to understand him well, and strong men sought combat simply to measure strength, as in gladiatorial contests of olden time. Almost invariably he was victorious, but victory was often worse than defeat, for it converted into life-long enemies men who before had been merely indifferent. * * * He held his place for almost two-thirds of a century through no favor of man, but solely because he refused to be displaced.

For the benefit of those who, after the science of paleontology was well upon its feet, were disposed to claim it as a branch of biology, it may be well to remark that with Hall the problems of geology were always uppermost.

> His quartos on the New York paleontology are his monument, and the casual observer is liable to see in him a biologist rather than a geologist, but until his later years he was a geologist. His studies were from the standpoint of one seeking to determine relations between the physical and biological conditions in order to solve problems of correlation. The great problems of geology, not those of biology, were uppermost in his mind until less than twenty years ago. His presidential address to the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1857 (see p. 499), was so far in advance of the time as to be thought not merely absurd, but mystical, yet to-day it is recognized as one of the most important contributions to one of the most difficult problems in physical geology. Even in his later years, when biological problems

had assumed their proper importance for him, he would have resented an intimation that he was any less of geologist than before.

Fifteen quarto volumes, comprising 4,539 pages and 1,081 full page plates of fossils, stand as an enduring monument to his industry, a record which never has, and presumably never will be, surpassed in the annals of American geology.[a]

Hall's Work in Ohio, 1841.

In 1841 Hall, fresh from his work on the geological survey of New York, made a tour through the then western State of Ohio to the Mississippi River, with a view of furthering the work of Vanuxem in 1829 relative to the identity of certain of the western formations with those of New York. As a result, he claimed that the rocks seen near Cleveland were "perfectly identical with those of the middle portion of the Portage group," and that the rocks of the Chemung group, now known to be Waverly, appeared near Newbury and Akron. The Cliff limestone of the Ohio geologists he regarded as the equivalent of the Helderberg series of New York, or at least of the Onondaga and Corniferous members.[b] Perhaps the most important of his generalizations was the following:

> From the facts here stated, the conclusion seems unavoidable that the character of fossils is, or may be, as variable as lithological characters; in fact, that the species depend in some degree upon the nature of the material among which they lived. Fossil characters, therefore, become of parallel importance to the lithological; and, in order to arrive at just conclusions, both must be studied in connection, and localities of proximity examined. In the case of the Hudson River group of shales and sandstones, in passing from New York to Ohio the lithological character is almost entirely changed, and at the same time also the most prominent and abundant fossils are unlike those of the group in New York. More careful examination, however, reveals the fossils which characterize this group at the East, and also at the same time some obscurely similar lithological characters. Similar lithological changes, accompanied by like changes in fossils, occur in more limited districts within the State of New York. Without desiring to diminish the value of fossil characters as means of identifying strata, it must still be acknowledged that similar conditions in the bed of the ocean, and, apparently, similar depth of water, are required to give existence or continuation to a uniform fauna; and when we pass beyond the points where these conditions existed in the ancient ocean, we lose, in the same degree, the evidences of identity through successive depositions, often of very different nature; yet, at the same time, these may not have had a very wide geographical range.

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[a] Prof. Charles Schuchert informs me that if to the above are added his miscellaneous publications in octavo the number of pages of text published during his life may safely be set down as not less than 10,000. Large as are these figures, they were, however, exceeded by the celebrated Bohemian paleontologist Barrande, who issued during his life 18 quarto volumes, comprising 5,568 pages of text and 798 plates of fossils, besides leaving manuscript and material for at least 10 volumes more, of which 4 have been issued since his death.

[b] At that time, the Corniferous, Schoharie, Cauda-galli, Oriskany, and the Onondaga, or Salina and Waterlime, were considered subdivisions of the Upper and Lower Helderberg.

He further wrote:

One of the most interesting changes in the products on going westward is the great increase of carbonate of lime, and the diminution of shaly and sandy matter, indicating a deeper ocean or greater distance from land. The source of the calcareous deposits is thus shown to have been in that direction, or in the southwest, while the sands and clays had their origin in the east, southeast, and northeast, producing a turbid condition in the waters of these parts during long intervals, and the formation of chemical deposits. In New York we are evidently upon the margin of this primeval ocean, as indicated in the character of the deposits as well as organic remains; the southwest unfolds to us that portion where greater depth and more quiet condition prevailed.

This is apparently the first clear enunciation by an American geologist of what are now generally recognized as well established geological principles.

It was but natural that Hall, while geologist of the fourth district of New York, should write concerning Niagara and its gorges. The views of Bakewell, Rogers, and Hayes have been already noted in these pages. Hall in his State report (1841), but more in detail in the Boston Journal of Natural History for 1842, covered the ground in a manner much more thorough and scientific than any of his predecessors.

Hall's Views Concerning Niagara, 1842.

Hall announced at the outset his disagreement with Doctor Daubeny,[a] who considered that the terrace or escarpment at Lewiston was produced by a fault, as he found no evidence whatever of even the smallest disturbance.

He noted the abrupt change in the direction of the stream at the Whirlpool, and also the gravel-filled channel extending from this point to St. Davids, but, singularly enough, failed to realize that this may have been the one-time channel of the Niagara. He felt, rather, that this ravine was excavated by the power of the waves of the sea, aided probably by a stream which may have been of very insignificant proportions.

The fact was, however, recognized that the river was at that time carving out its own channel, and the existing gorge from the falls to Lewiston was due to the same cause.

In 1841, after several years of agitation, there was established a geological survey of Canada, of which W. E. Logan was put in charge in the spring of 1842, the sum of £1,500 being appropriated for the purpose of carrying out the work. During the season of 1842 Logan spent several weeks in examining portions of the coal fields of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and made his famous section of the Coal Measures at the South Joggins, which gave the details of nearly the whole thickness of the coal formation, some 14,500 feet, including 76 beds of coal and 90 distinct Stigmaria under-clays. Logan remained at the head of this

Establishment of a Geological Survey of Canada, 1842.

[a] Daubeny was professor at Oxford, England.

survey until 1869, when he resigned, to be succeeded by Selwyn (see p. 549). During this period he submitted sixteen reports, dealing mainly with stratigraphic and economic subjects, and in 1863 a summation of his results under the caption of The Geology of Canada (p. 517).

Issachar Cozzens's Geology of New York, 1843.

Among the early members of the New York Lyceum was one Issachar Cozzens, a chemist and geologist, who has left as his main claim to recognition here an octavo volume of 114 pages and 9 plates, entitled A Geological History of Manhattan or New York Island, together with a map of the Island and a suite of Sections, Tables, and Columns for the Study of Geology, particularly adapted to the American Student. This was published in 1843. The map and sections were all hand-colored, the latter somewhat gorgeously, and included, aside from those relating to New York Island proper, sections of Staten Island; one across the Palisades on the west side of the Hudson River; one from Stony Point, on the Hudson River, through Dunderberg Mountain in New York; one from Brenton Reef to Portsmouth, Rhode Island, and one of Niagara Falls, the latter showing the origin of the falls through the gradual undermining of the softer shales and the breaking down of the harder limestones above.

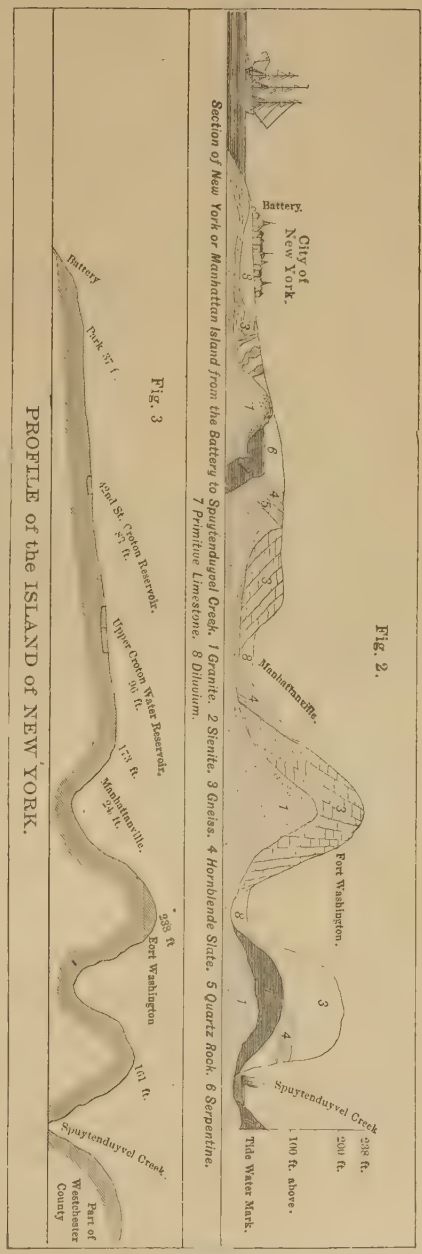

Section of New York or Manhattan Island from the Battery to Spuytenduyvel Creek. 1 Granite. 2 Sienite. 3 Gneiss. 4 Hornblende Slate. 5 Quartz Rock. 6 Serpentine. 7 Primitive Limestone. 8 Diluvium.
Battery.
City of New York.
Manhattanville.
Fort Washington.
Spuytenduyvel Creek
238 ft.
200 ft.
100 ft. above.
Tide Water Mark.
Fig. 2.
PROFILE of the ISLAND of NEW YORK.
Battery
Park 97 f.
42nd St. Croton Reservoir. 87 ft.
Upper Croton Water Reservoir. 80 ft.
179 ft.
Manhattanville. 234 ft.
238 ft
Fort Washington
101 ft.
Spuytenduyvel Creek.
Part of Westchester County
Fig. 3

FIG. 34.—Profile of the Island of New York.

The rocks of Manhattan Island proper were classed as (1) granite, (2) syenite, (3) gneiss, (4) hornblende slate, (5) quartz rock, (6) serpentine, (7) primitive limestone, and (8) diluvion.

In the various sections given the vertical distances are grossly exaggerated, and the rocks piled on top of one another without any evident consideration of their original position; nor is there in the text any indication that the author considered at all the problems relating to original horizontality, uplift, and erosion. The red sandstone associated with the New Jersey traps (Triassic) he considered as Old Red, but the impressions of fossil fish that had been reported as found therein he regarded as rather from overlying beds—from "one of the upper members of the Coal Measures which lie above it." The Triassic conglomerate of Maryland and Virginia was also incidentally referred to the Coal Measures. This seems a little strange when we consider the previous work of his collaborators, Redfield and Hitchcock.

It is stated in his preface that the work was first undertaken for his own amusement and study, and it is possible that his influence can not be gauged simply by this one publication.[a]

Lawrence's Geology of the Western States.

In 1843, also, there was published by Byrem Lawrence a geological map and descriptive pamphlet of the Western States. This was designed for popular use, and was claimed to be the first attempt of its kind. The "Western States" at that date included nothing west of the Mississippi Valley. "The West," he wrote, "has no mountains nor even hills, except such as have been produced by the action of running water * * *. The rocks here have never been broken by violence nor tilted up as in the East, but lie apparently horizontal in the sides of the hills." The drift he described in some detail, its source recognized and its cause attributed to water and ice. "It is probable there may be some analogy between the whole matter and the icebergs of the present day."[b]

Ruffin and Tuomey's work in South Carolina, 1843.

In 1843, too, the noted Edmund Ruffin, agricultural surveyor of South Carolina, published a report of the commencement and progress of his survey, in the form of a small volume [of 120 + 55 pages], which naturally related largely to agricultural matters. It contained, however, a list of the invertebrate fossils of the State as then known and numerous analyses of the marls. He noted that nearly the entire country above the lower

[a] In the annals of the Lyceum of Natural History for 1867, Mr. R. P. Stevens had a paper read in 1865 on the past and present history of the geology of New York Island. In this, after reviewing the work of H. H. Hayden, Maclure, Akerly, and Cozzens, he gave the results of later observations by himself in the 75 to 100 miles of artificial sections exposed since Cozzens's time. He showed the island to be a portion of the main land of Westchester County cut off by a profound fault. The rocks enumerated were chiefly gneiss, which he considered metamorphosed Taconic, cut by granite, and interbedded with limestone.

[b] Lawrence is credited in Darton's bibliography of American geology with but two very brief geological papers on Coal in Arkansas and the Geology of Arkansas—published in New Orleans in 1851 and 1853, respectively.

fall line of the rivers was occupied by granitic rocks and their residual soils.

The first attempt at a systematic geological survey of South Carolina was inaugurated in 1844 with the appointment of Michael Tuomey as State geologist. The first report, an octavo pamphlet of 45 pages with an appendix, was submitted in November of the same year. This was devoted mainly to economic considerations, and, aside from a few notes on rock weathering, contained little of general interest. His final report, which appeared in 1849, will be noted later.

Sketch of Tuomey.

Tuomey was born in Ireland in 1805, and went to England when about 17 years of age, shortly afterwards coming to America. He first settled near Philadelphia, going thence to Maryland, where he served for a time as a tutor in a private family. He entered the Rensselaer school in New York, and after graduation went South, serving first as an engineer on a railway in North Carolina and afterwards as a teacher in Virginia. His love for natural history led him to make collections of fossils, which brought him in contact with Sir Charles Lyell, James Hall, J. D. Dana, and others, and he shared with Rogers the honor of discovering the infusorial beds near Richmond and Petersburg.

Fig. 35.—Michael Tuomey.

In 1844 he became State geologist of South Carolinia, as already mentioned, and, in 1847, was appointed professor of geology, mineralogy, and agricultural chemistry in the University of Alabama; in 1848 receiving in addition the appointment of State geologist. As a teacher Tuomey is represented to us as possessing in a remarkable degree the faculty of interesting the student, those, even, who took no particular interest in the subject-matter of his lectures. His native Irish wit did much to render his lectures entertaining, especially to those who were not the victims of it, he being particularly unmerciful in his rebukes and exposures of shams and affectations.

His most important publications are his official reports on the geology of South Carolina, and his joint report with Dr. F. S. Holmes, of Charleston, on the Pliocene fossils of that State, the latter of which appeared in 1855.

Prior to the introduction of the microscope and the study of rock structures by means of thin sections (about 1870) views regarding metamorphism, particularly such as are due to sheering stresses in the older crystallines, were naturally somewhat vague. With rocks too fine of grain to allow a determination of their structure and mineral composition by the unaided eye, only mode of occurrence could be

relied upon to give a clew to their origin, and it was not until the thin sections made it possible to sometimes trace a distinct gradation from schistose and foliated rocks of decidedly metamorphic aspect into massive eruptives of the same ultimate composition that a feeling of doubt began to arise in the minds of observers regarding the assumed sedimentary origin of the gneisses and crystalline schists.

Dana's Views on Metamorphism, 1843.

It was during this prematinal period, as Rogers might have termed it, that J. D. Dana came out with a suggestive paper in the American Journal of Science on the analogies between the modern igneous rocks and the so-called Primary formations and the metamorphic changes produced by heat in the associated sedimentary deposits. The conclusions arrived at were based upon observations made during the Wilkes exploring expedition, and the exciting cause of a paper at this time would appear to have been the somewhat varying views recently put forth by Lyell.

Dana argued that: (1) The schistose structure of gneiss and mica slate was not necessarily an evidence of sedimentary origin; (2) that some granites having no trace of a schistose structure may have had a sedimentary origin; and (3) that the heat producing metamorphism was not applied from beneath by conduction, but was rather due to heated waters of the ocean which permeated the rocks. As confirmatory of the first he called attention to the parallel arrangement of the minerals and the consequent platy structure, with a tendency to split along certain lines, which were sometimes found in volcanic and other igneous rocks. The possibility of a schistose structure due to dynamic (shearing) causes was not, however, suggested.

His argument for the possible metamorphic origin of certain granites was based upon the fact that some of the basaltic tuffs observed by him in the Andes and in Oregon had become so indurated that their fragmental origin was almost wholly obscured. He felt that if rocks of this type could be so remodeled or rehardened as to be scarcely distinguishable from the parent rock, sedimentary deposits of granitic origin might undergo a like change.

His argument against metamorphism by dry heat was enforced by calling attention to the low conducting power of stone, which is such that heat, even to the point of fusion, may be transmitted only a few inches. "Lavas may be heated to a red heat within a yard of the surface and still be so cool above that the bare foot may walk upon them." He believed that subterranean waters or water on sea bottoms might become so heated by "volcanic fires" as, on permeating the rocks, to bring about the metamorphism. This, of course, would mean that the gneissic rocks were not necessarily deep seated (hypogene), as held by Lyell, but analogous to other rock formations deposited and solidified at or near the surface.

In a paper read before the fifth session of American Geologists and Naturalists in 1844, Prof. Edward Hitchcock described a trap tufa differing from "common trap" in being conglomerate and apparently carrying organic remains. He believed that this was produced before the main ridges of trap along the Connecticut River, by precursory outbursts of pumice, scoria, ashes, and melted matter falling over the bottom of the ocean, where it became admixed with sand and gravel. After this layers of sandstone accumulated over it, and finally the main ridges of trap were protruded through the strata, tilting them up.

Hitchcock on the Trap Tufa of the Connecticut Valley and on Inclination of Strata, 1844.

He regarded the dip of the sandstone in the valley as due in part to elevation by the protrusion of the trap and in part to the lifting and lateral movements of the adjoining primary ridges. He felt, however, that the sandstone might have been originally deposited on a slightly inclined plane. This last view brings up a matter which seems often to have seriously troubled the earlier geologists, and which, so far as the literature shows, was never solved for itself, but became lost sight of as other and satisfactory means of accounting for the phenomenon were observed. This relates to the inclined position of strata—how much of it was due to original deposition and how much to upheaval. Cleaveland, it will be remembered, in his work on geology and mineralogy, 1816, expressed a doubt as to whether the inclined position of strata was original or due to some powerful cause which had elevated them from horizontality. Maclure in 1825 suggested that the dip, so far as the transition rocks were concerned, might result from their having been laid down on a primitive floor, concerning the position of which nothing was known. Hitchcock, it will be noticed, with his usual caution, felt that both causes might have been instrumental in producing the dip observed.

At the same session at which Hitchcock read the paper noted above, Benjamin Silliman, jr., presented a report On the Intrusive Trap of the New Red Sandstone of Connecticut. His conclusions were to the effect that the sandstone was let down from suspension in water in the inclined position which it now occupies and that it had suffered no change in dip, excepting in immediate connection with the injection of the trap rocks. He considered it probable that the strata were deposited by a primeval ocean current setting from the southwest and west. Subsequent to this accumulation and consolidation the lower primary rocks were disrupted, the igneous rocks injected through the fissures and distributed along the lines of least resistance in the sedimentary strata—that is, along and up the plane of the dip, thereby lifting the strata parallel to the dip from the beds on which they had before reposed. At the same time there were produced in the upper strata fissures and transverse cracks which were filled with the molten trap. This injection he thought was probably continued during a

long period, but all referable to the same geological epoch and anterior to the elevation of the strata in which it occurred.

After the deposition and injection ceased and the elevation of the present continent had commenced, denudation, induced by a northerly current, set in, the current itself being due to the flowing off of the oceanic waters incidental to the elevation of the present continent. By this denudation the soft shales and other materials were removed and the trap ridges developed. Thus, deposition, intrusion, uplift, and erosion were all included within a single epoch.

Early speculations regarding the origin of the earth, though largely fanciful, were founded upon the brief outline of a series of events as chronicled in the first chapter of Genesis. Theories regarding earth development and its probable destiny other than its catastrophic annihilation through Divine wrath, as a punishment for sinful man, were slow to appear. When such did appear, however, they were founded upon a much more scientific basis.

H. D. Rogers on the Atmosphere of the Coal Period, 1844.

That a mutual reaction was going on constantly between the superficial portions of the earth and its surrounding atmosphere was doubtless realized by all of those who wrote on the weathering of rocks and the formation of soils; but, so far as known to the present writer, H. D. Rogers was one of the first of American geologists to show by direct calculation that the earth had been in the past, as at present, robbing the atmosphere of some of its constituent parts and gradually storing them up in its solid crust.[a]

At the Washington meeting of the American Association of Geologists and Naturalists in May, 1844, Professor Rogers submitted a communication on the probable constitution of the atmosphere at the period of the formation of the coal. He estimated that the amount of carbon existing in the atmosphere to-day in the form of carbonic acid would be only sufficient to furnish through vegetable action about 850,000,000 tons of coal, while the probable quantity of this substance in existence, all of which must have been elaborated from the ancient atmosphere, was nearly 5,000,000,000 tons; that is to say, about six times what the present atmosphere would produce. So great a reduction in the carbonic acid, implying a corresponding augmentation of oxygen, is felt to be a matter of great interest in geology, as showing that every modification in the constitution of the air had adapted it to the development of animals progressively higher in the scale of organization.

Of all the New England States Vermont was the last to become infected with a desire for a geological survey, and it was not until

[a] Vanuxem in 1827, while connected with South Carolina College, pointed out the probable change in the atmosphere during geologic time through the absorption by the earth of nitrogen and oxygen, and also the probability of a warm, moist climate during the period of coal formation. (American Journal of Science, XII, 1827.)

1844 that the final steps were taken resulting in the appointment of Prof. C. B. Adams as State geologist. Adams was educated at Phillips Academy and Amherst College, and subsequently attended the theological seminary at the last-named place. In 1836 he became a tutor at Amherst and for a brief period was assistant to Professor Hitchcock in his work on the geological survey of New York. When appointed State geologist of Vermont he selected Zadock Thompson as his chief assistant, Denison Olmsted, jr., and later T. Sterry Hunt aiding in mineralogy and chemistry. Rev. S. R. Hall, of Craftsbury, was employed to look after the agricultural features. Up to March, 1848, the survey continued in a fairly prosperous condition, a large amount of material being collected, both in the way of specimens and notes, but at the session of the legislature for this year appropriations were for some reason withheld and the work stopped. Four reports in all were issued, the last a mere pamphlet of eight pages.

C. B. Adams's Work in Vermont, 1844.

The purpose of the survey, as stated in the first report, was to collect and analyze the soil, the simple minerals, both of economic and scientific importance, and to make investigations into the character and limits of the geological formations. The reports on the whole were extremely fragmentary. Doctor Adams dying before the manuscript of the final report was prepared, a large part of his work was lost, this mainly owing to the fact that he took his notes in a "peculiar shorthand, which only he could read." As suggested by Professor Thompson, it would have required more labor to decipher his notes than to go over the ground anew.

FIG. 36.—Charles Baker Adams.

The second annual report was prepared as was not infrequently the case at that date—in the form of a general treatise on geology, and began with an elementary chapter which dealt with all subjects relating to geological phenomena, whether applicable to the State or not. The views advanced were those given by the text-books of the period and need not be mentioned in detail. An ideal section from the first report is, however, reproduced here as illustrating equally well the rough method of picture making with which the early workers had to content themselves and the crudity of ideas relative to the earth's crust and interior. He would, indeed, be regarded as a novice in geology to-day who would not at first glance inquire what supported the mass of solid material represented as resting upon the molten lava, yet this question does not seem at this time to have even presented itself for consideration. A little space was devoted to the subject of

the connection between geology and the Bible, to meet the wants of the "many well-meaning persons" who were disturbed by a supposed incongruity between the principles of geology and the Mosaic narrative. A very abstruse explanation of concretionary structures was offered, Adams failing, as did many of his contemporaries, to discriminate between concretionary structure as it is now understood, and certain forms assumed by igneous rocks and due to contraction in cooling. Thus he considered columnar structure in basaltic rocks as a peculiar form of concretion which was due to lateral pressure such as might exist between spheres compressed at the sides.

Agassiz's glacial theories had been apparently without effect, even if they were known, and icebergs were considered as sufficient to account for all the phenomena of the drift.

FIG. 37.—Ideal section of the Crust of the Earth. (After C. B. Adams.)

EXPLANATIONS.—Unstratified rocks of igneous origin: G, granite; Sn, seinite; Pr, porphyry; Tp, trap rocks; Td, a trap dyke; L, lava, with a volcano, *c c* being fissures through which the water of the ocean penetrates to the melted lava by its conversion into steam, causing earthquakes and eruptions. Stratified rocks (represented by parallel lines) of aqueous origin: Pr S, primary strata; Tr, palaeozoic rocks, or the oldest rocks which contain the remains of animals and plants; Sec, secondary rocks; Tt, tertiary strata; D, the superficial covering of sand, gravel, and loose stones, called "drift."

In 1847, the year before the closing of the survey, Adams had accepted a professorship at Amherst, and in 1853, in conjunction with Alonzo Gray, published as a text-book an Elements of Geology, a duodecimo volume of 350 pages. Here his geological work seems to have ceased. Indeed, from the date of the abandonment of the State survey he devoted himself mainly to zoology, and particularly to conchology, making large collections especially rich in West Indian and Central American forms. While at St. Thomas, on one of his collecting trips, he contracted yellow fever, from which he died in 1853. He is described as a man of sturdy build, medium height, with large, black eyes and black hair. A man of tremendous physical endurance, knowing neither fear nor what it was to be tired; but, withal, a quiet and self-contained demeanor.

Thompson, Adams's chief assistant, is represented to us as a man poor in this world's goods as well as in general health, and modest almost to a fault one who from childhood had shown a passion for writing books. His first publications were almanacs, which he himself sold while traveling on foot about the country. It is told of him

that when at one time interrupted by his clerk with an inquiry as to the prediction that should be made in the forthcoming issue for the weather for July, he replied somewhat testily, "Say 'Snow about this time.'" So it stood in the printed almanacs, as issued from the press, and, to the astonishment of all, including both printer and author, snow did fall in Vermont that year in the month of July.

Sketch of Zadock Thompson.

The industry of the man was remarkable. He graduated from the University of Vermont at the age of 27. He published an arithmetic, a geography and map of Canada for use in the common schools; became in 1832 editor of the Green Mountain Repository; wrote a history of Vermont, which appeared the same year; studied theology, and took deacon's orders in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1836. He preached for a time and returned once more to his book writing, first publishing in three volumes a Natural, Civil, and Statistical History of Vermont; then a text-book on the Geology and Geography of Vermont; finally becoming an assistant to Professor Adams on the State survey in 1845, when his geological work really began.

FIG. 38.—Zadock Thompson.

"Tall, angular, of a very quiet and sedate, yet very pleasant, manner, a man of most amiable and sweet temper, loved by all who knew him, and respected for his sound sense and accurate judgment." Such is the picture given us of him, who certainly was one of the most remarkable men of his times although his name may not stand the highest in the annals of geology.

Under the caption of "Description of a singular case of dispersion of blocks of stone connected with the drift in Berkshire County, Massachusetts," Dr. Edward Hitchcock described in the American Journal of Science for 1845 a remarkable train of glacial bowlders extending from Fry's Hill in the Canaan Mountains, of New York, southeasterly into Massachusetts for a distance of some 15 or 20 miles.

Hitchcock's Description of the Richmond Bowlder Train, 1845.

The lithological nature of the bowlders was such that they could all be traced to a common source, though described as forming three somewhat meandering trains extending from Fry's Hill above mentioned, through the adjoining valley, and upward over an elevation of 800 feet at the State line, across the Richmond Valley and over Lennox Mountain, 600 feet in height, to and over Beartown Mountain, 1,000 feet in height.

Naturally, so striking a phenomenon excited investigation, and, naturally, too, Doctor Hitchcock, in the then existing condition of

knowledge regarding glacial transportation, found difficulty in accounting for the same. He recognized the similarity of the trains to the lateral glacial moraines described by Agassiz in his *Etudes sur les Glaciers*, which had appeared five years previously, but could not conceive of a glacier traveling directly across the intervening ridges, even were the mountains in the vicinity of sufficient altitude to give rise to the same. Neither did the consideration of river drift or floating ice afford him a satisfactory conclusion. "In short, I find so many difficulties on any supposition which I may make that I prefer to leave the case unexplained until more analogous facts have been observed."

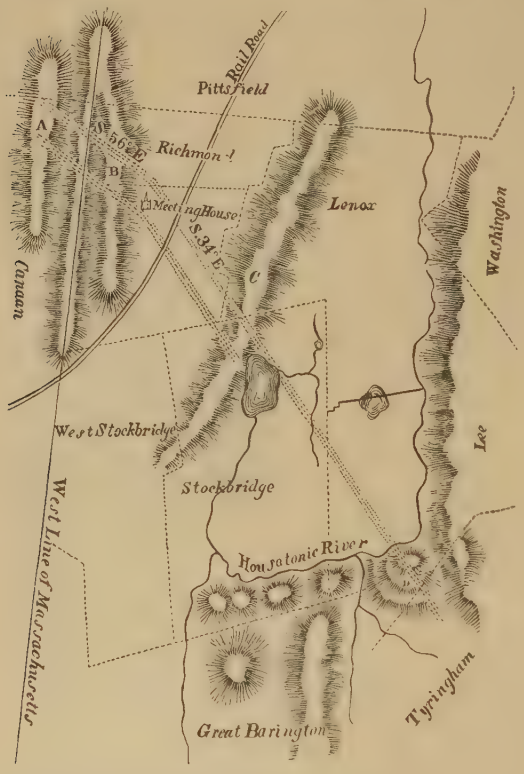


FIG. 39.—Richmond Bowlder Train. (After E. Hitchcock.)

Unsatisfactory and apparently unimportant as the paper may, at first thought, seem, it is mentioned here on account of the extraordinary explanation of the phenomenon offered by the Rogers brothers three years later (see p. 403).

In the American Journal of Science for 1845 W. W. Mather, whose work in New York and Ohio has been already mentioned, published a paper on the physical geography of the United States in which he still further elaborated some of the interesting and rather unique ideas regarding the origin of the secondary rocks and the elevation of islands, continents, and mountain chains which he there put forth. These may be referred to in considerable detail.

Mather on the Physical Geology of the United States, 1845.

Mather again argued on the basis that the earth is a cooling body, contracting, and hence undergoing an increased velocity of rotation upon its axis. The oblateness of its spheroidal form, due to the increase of centrifugal force, would therefore induce a flow of water from the polar to the tropical regions, and as the earth revolved from west to east these currents from the poles would bend more and more

to the westward as they advanced to lower latitudes. On the other hand, the water in the Tropics, being gradually expanded through heat, would tend to flow off toward the polar regions.

These currents he regarded as having acted throughout all the time since the ocean occupied its present bed, and to them he would ascribe the mechanical distribution of many of the sediments making up the Secondary rocks. Considering only those currents that constitute the Equatorial, the Gulf Stream, and the Labrador Current in the Atlantic, he thought to show that the materials constituting the immense mass of sedimentary rocks between the primary ranges north of the Great Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico, and between the Blue Ridge and the Rocky Mountains, were deposited within the great eddy due to their interference.

The red sandstone formations extending from Carolina to Stony Point on the Hudson he believed to have been formed through the transporting power of the Gulf Stream, its northward extension having been cut off by a polar current flowing through the Champlain and Hudson River valleys. The loosely consolidated material now classed as glacial drift he seemed also to regard as having been transported and deposited through the same agency. The coal beds of the eastern and central portions of the United States he regarded as formed at the bottom of the ocean in which great eddies occurred, and where plants brought from the Tropics and other sources would float and circle about until they sank. He noted that these beds were based upon a sandstone which at the outcrop of its edges on the coal basins was much coarser and sometimes a conglomerate or coarse pudding stone, while through the center of the basins it was much finer. This fact denoted to his mind a stronger current on the exterior of the coal basins than within its area.

Concerning the regions over which the polar currents were supposed to have flown, and from whence, as a consequence, were derived the materials for the sedimentary rocks, he could say little from actual observation. Drawing for his materials mainly on the writings of travelers, though acknowledging that such might be faulty, he nevertheless pictured a scene of barrenness of the entire region north of the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes and from Newfoundland to the Stony Mountains such as is equaled only by that given by H. H. Hayden in his attempt to account for the deposits of the coastal plain (p. 256).

Although the quotations from travelers lack that accurate examination that is necessary to a determination whether the surfaces thus described have been exposed to the action of violent and long-continued currents, yet they have their weight. When considered in connection with the effects of known physical causes, it is rendered more than probable that the currents under consideration have flowed from the polar regions toward the equator and from the Tropics toward the poles when this continent was beneath the ocean, and that the matter which composed the deposits of the sedimentary rocks of the United States was washed away by these great equi-

libriating currents from the bed of the ocean, from reefs, islands, and coasts, and finally deposited from suspension over the great area where we now find it exposed to observation.

The probable cause of the elevation of the land he thought to be secular refrigeration accompanied by contraction, whereby a gradually accumulating tension was finally overcome by a yielding of the solid strata, such being regarded as paroxysmal and productive of earthquakes. At the same time a sudden increase of the velocity of the earth's rotation would result, and this in turn would increase the flow of the ocean currents above mentioned.

In attempting to account for the overturned character of the folds in the mountain chains of the eastern United States, he seems to have actually outdone the Rogers brothers in fecundity of ideas. He wrote:

> Paroxysmal elevation and the action of inertia offer a satisfactory explanation of the folded axes and eastwardly dip. Suppose the sudden elevation of a mountain mass one mile in height, or more distant from the axis of rotation than it was before its elevation. It would still retain the linear velocity it had when a mile nearer the axis of rotation, while the proper linear velocity at this increased distance would be $3 \cdot \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{4}^5$ miles, or 690 feet greater per hour than that which it had before its elevation. Inertia would therefore cause the mass at the top to press to the westward with a force proportional to its mass and the above-mentioned velocity, and at intermediate heights with a proportionally less momentum. If the strata be capable of yielding, they must, when elevated in highly curved wrinkles, tend to fall over westward as a consequence of the influence of inertia and the revolution of the earth from west to east on its axis.

Such a view from a man of Mather's training and at this late date certainly seems extraordinary.

Commenting further on the effects of centrifugal force, particularly upon bodies of different densities, he argued that as such is greatest under the equator, any subterranean force tending to elevate portions of the earth's surface by their elastic tension would here be most effective. In this way he would account for the supposed fact that most of the highest mountains are found within the Tropics. Reasoning along the same lines, he conceived it possible that tractures might be expected to develop in the direction of circles parallel to the equator at a distance intermediate between it and the poles, where the curvature resulting from the revolution of the earth would be greatest.

Conrad's Medial Tertiary of North America, 1845.

In continuation of his work begun in 1832, T. A. Conrad in 1845 issued his volume on the Medial Tertiary formations, the general plan of the work conforming closely to those which we have already considered (pp. 306, 320, and 354). In this latter work he described these formations as occupying a shallow but very extensive depression in the Cretaceous rocks, the most northern locality known being Cumberland County, New Jersey, whence it extended southward in a very connected series, spreading out over a large portion of the Atlantic seaboard.

The nature of the country, its strata, and fossils were described in detail. The most interesting part of the paper, from our standpoint, lies in his remarks on the theory of elevation and the age of the deposits. He regarded the formation of each Tertiary division and the final annihilation of its fauna as a very gradual operation, taking place in quiescent waters and having no connection with volcanic agencies or any violent movements of the earth's crust, but merely depending on changes of temperature.

In discussing the effects of these temperature changes he showed some peculiar ideas regarding the conductivity of rock masses and the effects of cooling. The cold penetrating deep into the igneous rocks beneath the surface, he thought, would result in a maximum amount of crystallization and expansion,[a] producing thereby a slight elevation of the crust. Since the cold penetrated gradually, he argued that the elevation would also be gradual, more appreciable, of course, during epochs of unusual cold. In brief, crustal elevation, he would have us believe, was induced not by volcanic agency, but by "the all-powerful and pervading influence of crystallization in the primary rocks." In this he followed what he calls the "sublime" theory advanced by Vanuxem. The idea that the abrupt change in the character of the animal life at the close of each geological epoch by a sudden fall of temperature was, however, avowedly the theory of Agassiz.

David Christy's Geological Observations, 1845–1848.

In connection with work pertaining to the Liberian Colonization Society, in 1845–1848, David Christy traveled extensively throughout the eastern and middle United States. Being a man of active mind and with a love for the sciences, he made many geological observations which were first embodied in a series of letters to Dr. John Locke and published in the Cincinnati Gazette. These were afterwards issued (in 1848) in pamphlet form, some 70 pages, with 5 plates of fossils and three geological sections: the first from Mine La Motte and Pilotknob, Missouri, to Hollidaysburg, Pennsylvania; the second from Lake Erie to Pensacola Bay, and the third from Richmond, Indiana, through Oxford, Ohio, to Beans Station, Tennessee.

It is impossible to say what portion of the information given in these letters can be claimed to be strictly the result of original investigation or observation. As stated by Locke in his introductory note, he "referred the geological formations to the Blue Limestone of Cincinnati as a kind of zero, informing us whether the rocks at any place are above or below that zero." Locke further states that he knew of "no other individual who has actually drawn approximate sections of the strata from the Atlantic to Iowa and from Lake Erie to the Gulf of Mexico; most of this work being the result of his own observations."

In a letter addressed to M. de Verneuil in 1847, relative to the

[a] As a matter of fact, crystallization in a rock magma would result in contraction.

erratic rocks of North America, Christy showed himself to have been a catastrophist. He believed that there had been two periods of elevation of the land in the history of the continent, with an intervening submergence. The second and last emergence he regarded as having been rapid and to have given rise to the swift currents which were instrumental in producing the drift.

Wislizenus's Explorations in Mexico, 1846.

In the spring of 1846, A. Wislizenus, a "German by birth and an American by choice," left St. Louis, Missouri, with the intention of making a tour through northern New Mexico and upper California for the purpose of examining into the geography and general natural history of the country. Unfortunately for his intentions, war between the United States and Mexico broke out while he was within the jurisdiction of the Mexican Government, and he was compelled to remain within the State of Chihuahua for a period of six months or until the arrival of the American troops, when he accepted a position in the medical department and returned with it by way of Monterey to the States.

FIG. 10.—Frederick Adolphus Wislizenus.

His opportunities for observation were, naturally, much less than was at first anticipated, and his geological report, amounting to but five pages, was published as a part of Senate Miscellaneous Document No. 26 of the thirtieth Congress, first session. In this report he noted that the bluffs on the Arkansas some 341 miles from Independence were of a grayish conglomerate limestone, containing fossils which "seemed to belong to the Cretaceous formation." Near Las Vegas he found a dark blue limestone with casts of *Inoceramus*, which were also relegated to the Cretaceous series. Near El Paso he noted the presence of a limestone containing the fossil coral *Calamopora* and the bivalve shell of the genus *Pterinea*, which, as a consequence, he considered as belonging to the Silurian formation. The presence of numerous eruptive rocks were noted and an outline map published, in which the lithological nature of the rocks was indicated. The map, it should be noted, comprised the area lying between the Arkansas and the Rio Grande rivers, but extended south and west of the latter as far as Monterey and Chihuahua.

Binney's Views on the Loess, 1846.

The fine silt-like character of the superficial deposits of the Mississippi Valley had frequently been noted by the various geologists who passed over the region, but it remained for Amos Binney, the conchologist, to give the first reasonably satisfactory account of its probable origin. At a meeting of

the Boston Society of Natural History in April, 1846, Binney exhibited a collection of fossil shells from the so-called Bluff formation at Natchez, on the Mississippi, and announced the belief that the formation was analogous to the Loess of the Rhine Valley and a result of fluviatile action rather than attributable to the glacial drift.

Dana on the Geological Results of the Earth's Contraction and the Grand Outline Features of the Earth, 1847.

In 1847 J. D. Dana, who from the beginning of his career had shown a disposition and ability to grasp the broader, more profound questions of geology, came forward with two papers which were beyond question the most important of the year. The first of these had to deal with the geological results of the earth's contraction in consequence of cooling and involved the acceptation on his part of the prevailing theory that the earth was once in a condition of igneous fluidity. After a full discussion of the subject and the views held by others, Dana announced it as his belief that the now oceanic areas were at one time the most intensely heated portions of the crust, and had, therefore, on cooling undergone the greatest amount of contraction, and that, further, the mountain ranges and main fissures along the oceanic borders are due to this same contraction. Such a theory, he felt, did away with the almost preposterous though prevalent idea that continents and mountains have been lifted up by a force acting from beneath, a force which could not be satisfactorily located and accounted for; a theory which would not account for the mountains retaining their positions, even did it offer satisfactory explanation for their first production.

He showed, further, that the folding and faulting of the strata as described by the Rogers brothers in Virginia and Pennsylvania could be readily accounted for on the theory of a force acting laterally, and that such folds would have their steepest incline on the side farthest from the source of movement and would also be most abrupt nearest this source. The fact that such results were not in all cases uniform, he conceived as being due to variation in the thickness of the beds, to a want of uniformity in the materials, and inequality in the action of the force upon the different parts of the line along which it operated.

The geological epochs were regarded, as announced in this same paper, as perhaps due to the alternation of prolonged periods of quiet with those of more or less abrupt change, due to contraction. The idea that mountains might be produced by tides and paroxysmal movements beneath the crust (as advocated by H. D. Rogers) was set aside on the ground that such should have occurred at earlier periods, and, further, it would not account for the principal ranges in the east and west of the continent. In many of the views he here advanced Dana agreed with those previously advanced by the French geologist Prevost.

In the second paper referred to, on the Grand Outline Features of the Earth, Dana argued "that the great chain of mountains, as well as

of islands, are interrupted ranges consisting of overlapping lines, either straight or curved, and that curves constitute an essential feature of the system." He showed that throughout the system of outlines presented by the earth northwest and northeast lines are prevalent, and that these lines are usually curved, instead of conforming to the direction of a great circle. He apparently accepted the theory that the course of mountain ranges, islands, and coast lines is attributable to the courses of former fissures in the earth's surface, and, in discussing the electrical, contractional, and other theoretical causes, suggested that if, as claimed, curves of magnetic intensity on the earth's surface are approximately isothermal lines, they must also be lines of equal cooling and hence of equal contraction and tension. But whatever may have been the origin of the fissures, he thought there could be no doubt but that a kind of cleavage structure, or at least capability of fracturing easily in two directions, was given the crust during its formation.

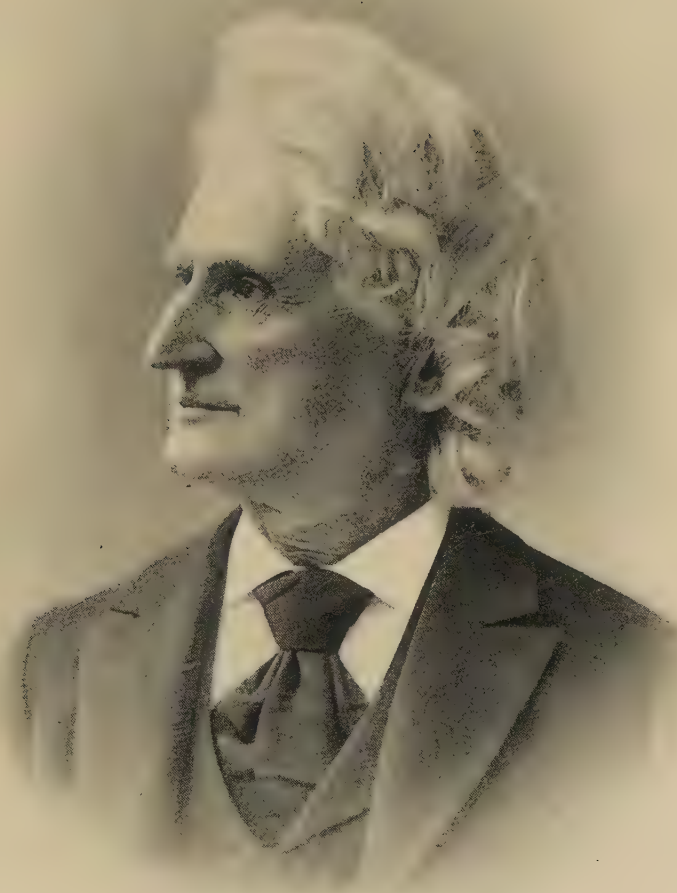
The conclusions which appear to flow from the facts that have been presented are as follows:

That the general direction and uniformity of the grand outline features of the globe may be in a great degree the simple effects of the earth's cooling, this operation resulting in (1) solidification, and under the circumstances, whatever they were, an attendant jointed structure or courses of easiest fracture, in two directions nearly at right angles with one another, both varying according to the rates of cooling in different parts; and (2) occasioning tension in the crust through the contraction going on beneath, with some relation to circular areas, but especially to large compound areas, which tension caused ruptures conforming or not to the lines of jointed structure according as the force of tension acted in accordance with this structure or obliquely to it. (3) The age of mountains can not, therefore, be determined necessarily by their courses; a different direction in a particular region in different ages is not improbable, since the same contracting area might exert its horizontal force in somewhat different directions at different epochs, or other such areas might cooperate and exert a modifying influence; and at the same time an identity of direction for different ages was to have been expected.

Sketch of J. D. Dana.

Prof. James D. Dana was born in Utica, New York, in 1813, and was, therefore, practically contemporaneous with James Hall. He became a student of Professor Silliman's in 1830 at Yale College, leaving in 1833, somewhat in advance of graduation, to avail himself of an offer to cruise in the Mediterranean, as instructor in mathematics to the midshipmen in the Navy.

The first paper in his bibliography was published in 1835 and gave an account of Vesuvius as seen by him during this trip in 1834. In 1836 he returned to New Haven, remaining for two years, the latter part of the time as assistant to Professor Silliman. It was during this time, scarcely four years after his graduation and when but twenty-four years of age, that he brought out his first System of Mineralogy,



JAMES DWIGHT DANA.
Professor of Geology, Yale College.

a volume of 580 pages, and a most remarkable work for the time and the conditions.[a]

From 1839 to 1842 Professor Dana served as geologist and mineralogist on the Wilkes Exploring Expedition, and for the first thirteen years after his return devoted his chief energies to the study of the material collected on the expedition and to the preparation of his reports, of which two—the volume on geology, 756 pages, 5 maps, and 21 plates (1849), and the one on crustaceans, 1,620 pages, with an atlas of 96 plates (1854)—are monumental. His labors, however, were not limited to the reports, for during the same period he prepared and issued three editions of the System of Mineralogy (1844, 1850, 1854) and two editions of the Manual of Geology (1848, 1857), besides writing numerous papers for scientific periodicals.

In 1846 Mr. Dana became an editor of the American Journal of Science, associated with Prof. Benjamin Silliman, who had founded it twenty-eight years before. His labors in connection with the Journal continued until the close of his life. In 1850 he was appointed professor of natural history in Yale College, and in 1864 the title was changed to that of professor of geology and mineralogy. His duties as instructor, however, he did not take up until 1855, but after this date, with some interruptions due to ill health, his active connection with the college continued until 1890. It is perhaps well to add that just before his appointment to Yale in 1850 he had been invited to a similar position at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in connection with Harvard College, but by the prompt action of a generous friend in the Yale faculty in providing the necessary funds he was induced to remain in New Haven and accept the "Silliman Professorship."

FIG. 41.—James Dwight Dana.

In 1859 long-continued overwork brought a breakdown of serious character and from which he never fully recovered, and although later some degree of health came back, he was always subject to the severest limitations until the end of his life. Only those immediately associated with him could appreciate the inexorable character of these limitations and the self-denial that was involved, not only in restricting work and mental effort, but also in avoiding intercourse with other men of science and friends in general, in which he always found the greatest pleasure. Little by little

[a] The "System" has now gone through six editions, though after 1868 the work was done mainly and finally wholly by his son, Prof. E. S. Dana, now professor of Physics and Curator of the Mineralogical Collection in the same university. The last edition, that of 1892, comprises 1,104 royal octavo pages with over 1,400 figures in the text.

the power for work was restored and by husbanding his strength so much was accomplished that, besides other writing, he was able to bring out in 1862 the first edition of his Manual of Geology, and in 1864 the Text-book of Geology, and four years later his last and most important contribution to mineralogy, the fifth edition of the "System." This last great labor, extending over four years, was followed by a turn of ill health of an alarming character and from which restoration was again very slow.

The years that immediately followed were filled with the same quiet labor, geological investigations in the field, the writing of original papers and books, the editorial work of the Journal, and his duties as a college instructor.

They were remarkably productive years, notwithstanding the difficulties contended against, notably his renewed illness in 1874 and 1880. A large number of important papers were published, chiefly in the Journal. New editions of the Manual of Geology were issued in 1874, 1880, and 1895; of the Text-book in 1874 and 1883; while a new geological volume called The Geological Story Briefly Told was issued in 1875, and one on the Characteristics of Volcanoes in 1890, after his second visit to the island. A second edition of his book on Corals and Coral Islands, the first edition of which appeared in 1872, was also brought out in 1890.

But it was not as an investigator and writer only that Dana achieved success. As a teacher he seems to have won the respect and regard of all with whom he came in contact, and to have left on the minds of students—even those who had no taste for geology—a lasting and favorable impression. Many of his sayings in class lectures were epigraphic: "I think it better to doubt until you know. Too many people assert and then let others doubt." Again, "I have found it best to be always afloat in regard to opinions on geology."

Nor can we regard him as merely a geologist. His work on crustaceans, comprising 1,620 pages, with an atlas of 96 plates (1854), shows that equal success could have been attained in the biological field had he chosen to follow it. The mental vigor and staying powers of the man were simply extraordinary, and it is not too much to say that he stands out head and shoulders above all his contemporaries, if not above all who preceded him. His interest never flagged; no problem was too large for him to grasp, no detail too small for his consideration.

It would seem quite extraordinary that two men who have done so much for American geology, whose work was really epoch making, who, without doubt, excelled any geologists of their time in ability to unravel the difficult structural problems of any region, should have been so extremely visionary in theoretical matters. The peculiar ideas of H. D. Rogers on the subject of the elevation of the Appalachians are elsewhere referred to. I wish here to notice their equally extraordinary ideas regarding the

H. D. and W. B. Rogers on the Richmond Bowlder Train, 1848.

Berkshire (Richmond) bowlder train, first brought to notice by Hitchcock (see p. 394).

According to the descriptions now given, the trains start, each from its particular depression in the summit of a high ridge, in Canaan, New York. Taking a direction S. 35° E., they cross the higher ridges and

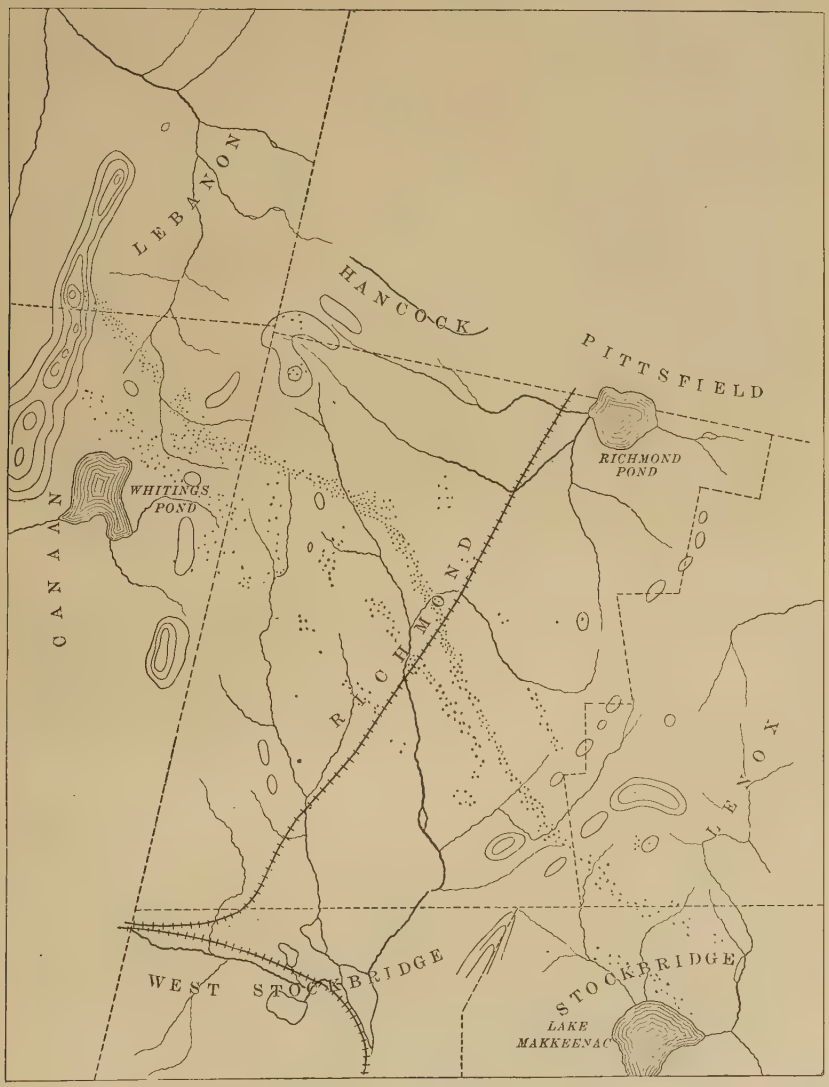


FIG. 42.—Sketch map of Richmond Bowlder Train. (After E. R. Benton.)

their intervening valleys, the longer for a distance of 20 miles and the shorter for 10 miles. The individual trains are neither of them more than 300 or 400 feet in breadth, and not over half a mile asunder. The transported blocks are of all sizes up to 20 feet in diameter, sharply angular, free from scratches, and all of the same lithological

nature, identical with that of the ridge from whence they start. That such a dispersion of bowlders from a single point should have taken place regardless of contours is certainly enough to excite the interest of anyone. It is the means invoked by the two workers which have excited our wonder, however.

After exhibiting to their own satisfaction the inadequacy of either the iceberg or the glacial hypothesis to account for their production, the authors, in a paper before the Boston Society of Natural History in 1848, attempted to show how all the phenomena might be explained by the theory of a sudden discharge of a portion of the Arctic Ocean southward across the land. They discussed the important functions of the "wave of translation," showed its surpassing velocity and great propulsive power, and traced the influence of vehement earthquakes near the pole in dislodging the northern waters and ice and maintaining in the rushing flood these vast and potent waves. They then suggested that, at a certain stage of the inundation, the ice, previously floating free, might impinge with irresistible violence against the tops of submerged hills, and that the Canaan Mountain stood precisely in the position to take the brunt of the ice-driving flood as it swept down the long, high slope of the distant Adirondack and across the low, broad valley of the Hudson.

They then proceeded to show that, at the instant when some enormous ice island struck the crest of the mountain and scooped the trench which we there behold, a great vortex was produced by the obstruction thus suddenly thrown in the path of the current, which, endowed with an excessive gyratory or spiral velocity, was capable of sustaining and carrying forward the greater part of the fragments. As in the instance of the water spout and the whirlwind, the whirlpool would gather into the rotating column the projected blocks and strew them in a narrow path in the line along which its pendent apex would drag the ground.

The paper terminated with an application of this idea in detail, to the explanation of each important feature of these trains; to their deflection from a straight line; the intermission in the bowlders at certain places in the train, and the fact that some of the blocks have been violently broken at the moment previous to their final deposition."

Truly there were catastrophists in those days.

We may anticipate here by stating that at the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1870, Prof. J. B.

"In 1852 the English geologist Lyell visited this region in company with James Hall, the former's views on the subject being published in 1855 in the Proceedings of the Royal Institution. He regarded the hypothesis of glacial transportation as out of the question, and apparently also that put forward by the Rogers brothers, for he made no mention of it. His own idea was that the large erratics had been transported to their present resting place by floating coast ice.

Perry read a paper on glacial phenomena, in which he referred to these trains incidentally, and argued that they were part of the true glacial drift—morainal material deposited by the melting of the ice sheet of the glacial epoch.

Prof. J. B. Perry's Ideas, 1870.

Again, in 1878, Mr. E. R. Benton studied the trains in considerable detail, and in the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoology published a detailed description and map of the region, from which the one given herewith is reproduced. Benton took the ground that the bowlders were deposited by the ice sheet of the glacial period at the time of its final melting, the direction of the striæ on the underlying rocks being here essentially the same as that of the bowlder trains. In connection with his investigations, Benton wrote to Prof. W. B. Rogers concerning the views above advocated by him, and received in reply the letter from which the following abstract is taken:

E. R. Benton's Work, 1878.

FIG. 43.—John Bulkley Perry.

At that time (i. e., when this paper was written) paroxysmal dynamics had still many advocates, and the attempted explanation may be interesting as a specimen of the bold type of speculation in which some of the early geologists sometimes ventured to indulge. But, for myself, I may say that long years of observation and study make me more distrustful of our knowledge of causes and more willing, in geology as in other things, to labor and wait.

It will be remembered that in 1844 Michael Tuomey was appointed State geologist of South Carolina, a position which he continued to hold until his appointment to the chair of geology, mineralogy, and agricultural chemistry in the State University of Alabama.

Tuomey's Final Report on the Geology of South Carolina, 1848.

A preliminary report has already been noted (p. 387). The final report appeared in the form of a volume of 293 pages in 1848. This, with the exception of the volume on the fossils of South Carolina, of which he and Doctor Holmes were joint authors, was the most systematic and pretentious of his publications.

This survey, like that of many of its predecessors in other States, was undertaken with a view of developing the agricultural resources of the State. The condition of the public mind toward pure science at the time is well reflected in the almost pathetic postscript of Mr. Tuomey to his preface, in which he simply states that, while the report was passing through the press, he was informed that the plates containing figures of fossils had not been considered essential by the committee on publication and were therefore omitted. The work

comprised: (1) An introduction of 59 pages, given up, as was so often the case with these early reports, to general geological considerations and as applicable to any other region as that at hand, and (2) the report proper, comprising seven chapters (234 pp.) and an appendix of 56 pages, containing a catalogue of the fauna of the State. It also contained a geological map of the State, the first to be issued.

The introductory chapters are interesting only as reflecting the condition of geologic knowledge at the time. Tuomey estimated that our actual knowledge of the earth's crust extends to a depth of 15 miles, measured from the tops of the highest mountains. He adopted the Kant-Laplacean theory of the origin of the earth, and recognized slaty cleavage as distinct from joints and stratification, regarding it as resulting "from the tendency of the simple component substances of the rock to arrange themselves in crystalline forms at a time when the semifluidity of the mass permitted a certain degree of motion among its particles." The crystalline structure of the gneisses and other metamorphic rocks he regarded as resulting from a degree of subterranean heat which, although intense, did not destroy the lines of stratification or bedding which they received at the time of their deposition. In his table showing the order of superposition of fossiliferous rocks, he divided them into: (1) The Recent or post-Pliocene period; (2) the Tertiary; (3) the Newer Secondary or Cretaceous; (4) the Middle Secondary, including the Wealden and Lower Lias with the intermediate beds; (5) the Older Secondary, including the Triassic; (6) the Newer Paleozoic, extending from the Magnesian Limestone or Permian down to and including the Lower Carboniferous shales; (7) the Middle Paleozoic, including the Devonian; and (8) the New York System of Upper and Lower Silurian, including the Chemung and Champlain Division and intermediate formations.

In the part of the report relating to the geology of the State proper were chapters on the character of the surface rocks, beginning with a discussion of the granites and traps. Attention was called to their extensive decomposition, and the production of bowlders through decomposition along joint plains is described and figured. The occurrence of the flexible sandstone, or itacolumite, was noted, and it was rightly remarked that "the flexible portions of the rock seem to be in the incipient stages of disintegration." The gold and iron mines received a considerable share of attention, and a map was given showing in color the deposits of magnetic, specular, and limonite ores, and limestone of the York and Spartanburg districts.

In the line of purely physical local geology, perhaps the most interesting part of the report lies in his discussion of the possible subsidence of the coast going on at the present time. He showed, to his own satisfaction at least, that the presence of stumps of trees below and partly below the present sea level was due to the gradual under-

mining of sand and mud flats on which they grew and the consequent settling of the stumps, retained in an upright position by their wide-spreading roots, and not to a subsidence of the coast, as taught by Lyell, Bartram, and later by Lieber and Cook.[a] The origin and nature of the soils, the mining and preparation of fertilizers, including lime burning, the washing and milling of gold ores, and kindred subjects, were touched upon. Many soil and fertilizer analyses were given, the latter and their discussion being largely by Prof. C. U. Shepard, then professor of chemistry in the Medical College of the State, at Charleston. The fossils were identified by Conrad and Gibbs.

It is but natural that a considerable portion of the work should be given up to a discussion and description of the Tertiary deposits, which cover more than half the area of the State. Concerning these he recapitulated as follows:

1. That they are situated in a vast depression in the Cretaceous rocks, which, however, are only visible on the east and northeast.

2. That the Eocene consists of three well-defined groups: (1) The Buhr-stone formation, composed of thick beds of sand, gravel, grit, clay, and buhr-stone, amounting to at least 400 feet in thickness and underlying the calcareous beds. Its upper portions are characterized by beds abounding in silicified shells, for the most part identical with the Claiborne fossils. As these are littoral shells, they probably occupied the coast while the Santee beds were forming in deep water. The materials of which this formation is composed are the ruins of the granitic and metamorphic rocks of the upper districts, which may often be traced to their origin. (2) The Santee beds, consisting of thick beds of white limestone, marl, and greensand. These are best seen on the Santee, where, interstratified with the greensand, they dip gently toward the south. The coralline marl of Eutaw is found near the upper edge of these beds. (3) The Ashley and Cooper beds, which are the newest Eocene beds of the State. The marl of these is characterized by its dark gray color and granular texture, while the remains of fishes and mammalia give its fossil remains a peculiar character and leave no doubt of the position assigned it—at the top of the Eocene series. These, together with the Santee beds, must amount at least to a thickness of 600 or 700 feet.

3. That although these strata contain throughout characteristic Eocene fossils, yet they also inclose some Cretaceous forms.

4. That the Middle Tertiary of the State, composed of beds of sand and marl, highly fossiliferous, is scattered, like similar beds in other places, over the Eocene and Cretaceous formations in isolated patches. That the proportion of recent species increases toward the south, and that the extinction of species seems to proceed in that direction, as is proved by the fact that the recent forms, which are also fossil, belong to a more southern fauna, there being but one or two exceptions.

5. That in South Carolina the proportion of recent species in this formation amounts to 40 per cent. I have, therefore, referred it to the older Pliocene.

6. That the post-Pliocene is confined to a belt along the coast of about 8 or 9 miles in breadth. The fossils are nearly all referable to living species now inhabiting the coast; a few, however, belong to the fauna of Florida and the West Indies. An elevation of the coast has taken place since the deposition of these beds, which, it is probable, has given the rivers of the Atlantic slope a western tendency.

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[a] Tuomey's view was upheld by Prof. N. S. Shaler as recently as 1870. Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History, XIII, p. 228.

7. That the submerged stumps of trees found below the level of high tide along the coast are not the result of subsidence, properly so called, but must be referred to the encroachment of the sea upon the land and to the peculiar character of the deposits in which they grew.

8. That the almost entire absence of fluviatile shells in the recent and Tertiary deposits is mainly due to two facts: (1) That there is a considerable space between the line of brackish and salt water, where neither fluviatile nor marine forms can exist; (2) that the streams have not transporting power sufficient to bring down fresh-water shells. So long as these circumstances exist, there can be no mixture of fluviatile and marine shells.

Prior to 1848 the professor of geology in the State University of Alabama had been required to spend a portion of his time, not exceeding four months of each year, in making geological explorations in the State. In January, 1848, the general assembly, in recognition of the utility of this work, passed a resolution appointing Michael Tuomey, then holding this professorship, State geologist, and requiring him to make a report to the general assembly at each of its biennial sessions. Thus simply was inaugurated the first systematic geological survey of the State.

Tuomey's Survey of Alabama, 1848–50.

Under this law, Tuomey's First Biennial Report, in form of an octavo volume of 176 pages and a colored geological map of the entire State, appeared in 1850. In this the rocks of the State were divided into those of (1) The Primary, (2) Metamorphic, (3) Silurian, (4) Carboniferous, (5) Cretaceous, and (6) Tertiary systems, the last named being represented, so far as then known, only by the Eocene. Much of the report was taken up with economical considerations, particular attention being paid to coal and iron.

The second report of this survey appeared under the editorship of J. W. Mallet, the publication having been delayed through the procrastination of the Public Printer and Professor Tuomey's death, which occurred in March, 1857.

Tuomey recognized on Marble Creek in Limestone County a blue limestone which was a continuation of the Silurian rocks in Tennessee. The Devonian rocks were represented by black slate found on the principal streams flowing from the north into the Tennessee between Flint River in Madison and Shoal Creek in Lauderdale County. He regarded the divisions of the carboniferous made by Troost as sufficiently characteristic in north Alabama to be retained.

The clastic material—that is, the loosely consolidated sands and gravels—which he mapped as extending across the middle of the State and north of the verge of the Cretaceous beds, and colored as post-Tertiary, were referred to as belonging to the drift, although having little resemblance to that of the north. "If the southern drift be at all connected with that of the north," he wrote, "it may be explained by supposing that the northern glaciers suddenly melted, and that the water thus liberated in immense volume took a southern direction,

carrying with it the débris torn from the surface over which it passed until it met the Tertiary sea, upon the shores of which its burden was deposited." This theory, he felt, would sufficiently account for that enormously long ridge of drift extending parallel with the Atlantic coast, for the moment the current entered the Tertiary sea its velocity would be checked and the greater part of the transported detritus deposited. The reader will here recognize an old idea, but slightly modified.

Commenting on the fact that these beds contain no fossils, he wrote:

> The only way by which I can account for this * * * is by supposing that, before the drift period, the bottom of this sea had been elevated and converted into dry land, and that at the commencement of the drift period a depression of the land took place; that the time between the influx of the sea and the deposition of the drift was too short for marine animals even to have commenced a colonization, and that the land was again elevated into its present position and subjected to long-continued denudation, which produced its present configuration; that after this elevation the rivers excavated their present channels.

Tuomey was assisted in this work by Oscar M. Lieber, geologist, and J. W. Mallet, chemist.

The withdrawal of Tuomey from the field in South Carolina incidental to his removal to Alabama left the position of State geologist vacant until the appointment of Lieber, in 1855. In the meantime F. S. Holmes, working privately, gave in the American Journal of Science for 1849 a brief paper on the geology of the vicinity of Charleston, which may be noted here, with the preliminary remark that this was Doctor Holmes's first venture in the geological field. In this paper attention was called to the fact that the city of Charleston was built upon geological formations supposed to be identical in age and in other respects similar to those upon which London and Paris are located, i. e., upon the Eocene. The adjacent sea islands he thought to have been formed through the action of the ground swell of the ocean and the streams flowing down from the interior during the time when the land was gradually emerging from the sea.

F. S. Holmes on the Geology of Charleston and Vicinity, 1849.

He agreed with Tuomey in taking exception to the then generally received opinion that the sea was advancing upon these shores, having been led by his own observations to the conclusion "that if the ocean does wash off portions of the shore at one exposed point it deposits the same at no great distance upon another." The supposed indications of subsidence, such as the stumps and roots of trees now below the level of high tide, he accounted for on the supposition that outer sand barriers, which had prevented the ingress of salt waters, were gradually removed, allowing the waves to wash away the fine silt and mud between the roots of the trees, thus permitting them to sink into it and become embedded. This, it will be noted, was essentially the view advanced by Tuomey.

Holmes classified the formations met with as post-Pliocene, Miocene, and Eocene, the post-Pliocene, where observed, resting directly upon the Eocene. This he would account for on the supposition that during the deposition of the post-Pliocene the Miocene areas were above water, or had been denuded of their post-Pliocene covering previous to the deposition of the alluvial or diluvial sands and clays.

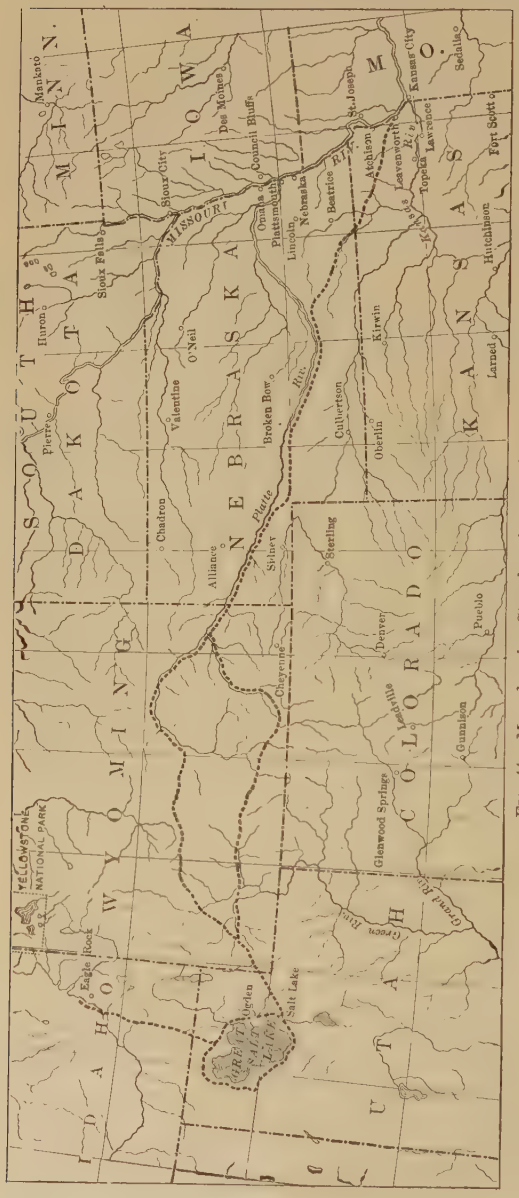

FIG. 44.—Map showing Stansbury's routes in 1849–50.

Captain Stansbury's Explorations in Utah, 1849.

In 1849 Capt. Howard Stansbury, of the corps of topographical engineers, acting under authority of the War Department, explored the valley of Great Salt Lake. The expedition left Fort Leavenworth May 31, 1849, taking a northwest direction and striking the Platte at Fort Kearney, proceeding thence along this and the North Fork to the Sweetwater, and thence across South Pass to Fort Bridger and Salt Lake City. The return trip was made by a more southerly route, through Bridger Pass, striking the old route again at Fort Laramie, and thence back to Fort Leavenworth, the latter point being reached the 6th of November, 1850.

No geologist accompanied this expedition, and a small series of rocks and fossils which were collected were reported upon by James Hall. Forms belonging to the Cretaceous, Carboniferous, and Silurian or Devonian ages were identified.

In 1847 Doctor Owen was again employed by the Treasury Department, under immediate supervision of General Land Commissioner R. M. Young, to make surveys in the Chippewa district of Wisconsin and the northern part of Iowa. The region lies between 43° and 47° north latitude and 89° and 94° longitude west of Greenwich, embracing about 46,000 square miles and, as shown on the map (fig. 45), comprising that portion of the country "lying chiefly east of the upper Mississippi above Lake Pepin and extending north to Lake Superior." Incidentally, there was included a portion of Iowa "stretching north from the northern boundary of the geological survey of 1839 as far as the St. Peters River, and also a tract of country north of the Wisconsin River."

D. D. Owen's Work in the Chippewa District and in Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota, 1847–1851.

FIG. 45.—Map of areas surveyed by D. D. Owen in Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois in 1839, and the Chippewa Land District in 1847.

As in the previous survey, the time was limited, only the summer and autumn of 1847 being devoted to field work, the report, printed in form of Senate Document No. 57 of the first session Thirtieth Congress, bearing the date of April 23, 1848. It comprised 134 pages, with one geological map, 23 lithographic plates from drawings by Doctor Owen, and 13 colored plates of sections. Some of these last were beautiful combinations of sections and perspective landscapes, and give at a glance a general idea of the surface features as well as the character and dip of the underlying rock masses, such as is rarely excelled. (See Plate 19, from his section 5.) Even when one considers that, as Owen states, the working time of the members of his corps was from twelve to fifteen hours a day, still one wonders that so much was accomplished and presented in such good form. Though a detailed geological survey was made of only about thirty townships west of the fourth principal meridian on Black River and sixty townships on the St. Croix, sufficient data was obtained to enable him to lay down with approximate accuracy the general bearing and area of the principal formations of over two-thirds the area above noted. He showed, also, that both the upper and lower magnesian limestone, were lead-bearing, and that there existed in Wisconsin two, if not three, trap ridges similar to those of Michigan, and which, like the last, "hold out a prospect of productiveness."

In this report, too, he first announced that the upper Mississippi country north of the Wisconsin River was based upon magnesian limestones which were older than the lowest formations of the valley of

Pl. I

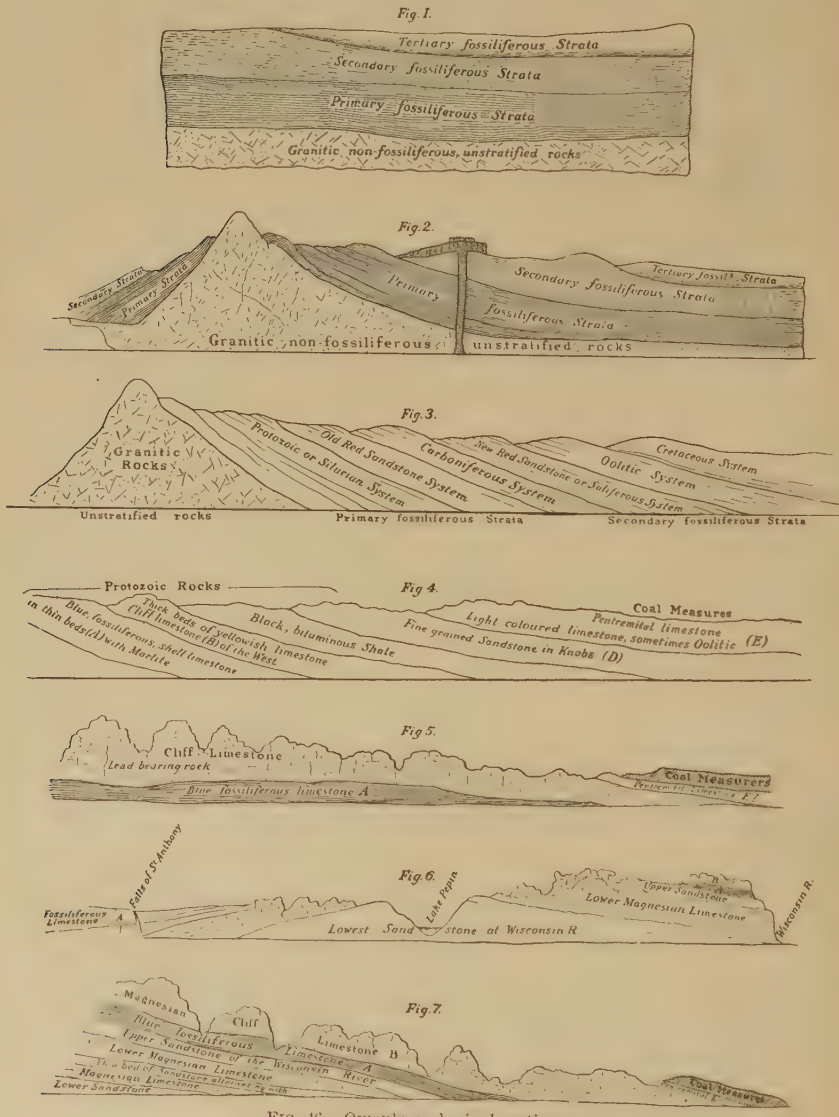

FIG. 46.—Owen's geological sections.

the Ohio, a portion of them being contemporaneous with the Calciferous group and Potsdam sandstone of New York. He noted also that the Falls of St. Anthony are receding and were probably at one time at a point near Fort Snelling.

Concerning the red sandstones of the south and west shores of Lake Superior, he wrote: "There is strong presumptive evidence that they were deposited subsequently to the Carboniferous era." His evidence, though, was admittedly weak and later was acknowledged to be wholly misleading and insufficient.

This preliminary reconnaissance ended, Owen was instructed to make a survey of the Northwest Territory, embracing chiefly Wisconsin, Iowa, and portions of Minnesota. The manuscript of his final report of this work was submitted in 1851 and published under date of 1852 in the form of a quarto volume of 628 pages of text, with 15 plates of fossils, 19 folding sections, and a geological map. The illustrations of the fossil remains are of particular interest, being medal-ruled on steel, the first of their kind produced in America.

Owen was assisted in this survey by Doctors Shumard and Litton, of St. Louis; Dr. John Evans and F. B. Meek, of Owensboro, Kentucky; Col. C. Whittlesey, of Cleveland, Ohio; and Messrs. B. C. Macy, Henry Pratton, George Warren, and John Beale, of New Harmony, Indiana.

To Doctor Leidy fell the work of describing the vertebrate fossils collected by Doctor Evans in the Bad Lands of Nebraska. Among these fossils was the now well-known Oreodon, an animal with grinding teeth like the elk and canines like those of omnivorous thick-skinned animals, belonging, as was thought, to "a race which lived both on flesh and vegetables and yet chewed the cud like our four-footed grazers."

This work was the first systematic account published of the Bad Lands fossils. The first mammalian remains to be described from this region, it should, however, be noted, consisted of fragments of the jaw of an enormous pachyderm, which were described by Dr. H. A. Prout, of St. Louis, in the American Journal of Science for 1847.

Owen regarded the gypsum deposits of Dubuque as due to original deposition at the bottom of an ocean, the sulphate of lime having probably been derived during the formation of the rocks and from submarine sources. This view is somewhat remarkable when it is recalled that of the total lime salts in solution in sea water, 90 per cent occur in the form of sulphates and would be deposited as gypsum during the ordinary processes of evaporation.

His views on the origin of the drift were in accordance with those of the leading authorities of his day. The large bowlders he regarded as having been deposited by floating ice and drifted by currents from the north while the country was depressed. The opinion which he had previously expressed (in 1848) concerning the age of the Lake Superior sandstones was in this final report retracted, and he relegated them, on stratigraphic evidences only, to the Potsdam formations, which is in accordance with the prevailing opinion of to-day.

Of greater importance was the fact, first announced in his report for 1847–48, but here brought out in detail, that underlying his lower magnesian limestone (Chazy) there were at least six different trilobite-bearing beds, separated by from 10 to 150 feet of intervening strata. Previous to this no remains of this nature had been reported from any American strata older than the Canadian period of the Lower Silurian. These trilobite-bearing strata, it should be noted, were found resting immediately upon the primal rocks and hence formed the true base of the zoological series in the Mississippi Valley.

On the title page of this volume appeared the cut of the horizontally jointed trap of Lake Superior that has long done duty in the text-books of Le Conte and others (see fig. 47).

FIG. 47.—Trap dikes on Lake Superior. (After D. D. Owen.)

In accordance with an act of Congress approved March 1, 1847, Dr. C. T. Jackson was appointed by the Hon. R. J. Walker, then Secretary of the Treasury, to make a geological survey of that portion of Michigan lying south of Lake Superior and north and northwest of Lake Michigan. As in previous operations of like nature by Owen, the object of this survey was to ascertain which of the lands should be classed as mining lands and which agricultural. Jackson spent two seasons in the prosecution of this work and then resigned, for reasons which seem to have been in part personal and in part political, the completion of the work being confided to his assistants, J. W. Foster and J. D. Whitney.

Work of C. T. Jackson in Michigan, 1847.

Jackson's report was published as House Document No. 5, Thirty-first Congress, first session, 1849. It comprised upward of 560 pages, with 19 plates, geological maps of Keweenaw Point and Isle Royal, and three sections of mines. The eruptive rocks of Keweenaw Point were described as having been intruded through linear caverns or fractures in the superincumbent rock which they had frequently overflowed, so as to rest unconformably on their strata. Here is again

recognized the possibility of fissure eruptions as distinctive from the crater eruptions of modern volcanoes.

The red sandstones of Lake Superior were erroneously regarded as belonging to the New Red series, the opinion being based upon a tract of limestone carrying the fossil *Pentamerus oblongus*, which was found in the midst of the sandstone near Anse.

Jackson, it is well to note, was opposed to the principle of the reservation of mineral lands by the General Government. He wrote:

> It may be useful to the public to cause geological and mineralogical surveys to be made for their information, but I am satisfied that the reservation of mineral lands is a great evil to the country, and that the Government never can derive revenue from such sources, while the restriction most seriously embarrasses the settlement of newly acquired territory. The above remarks are applicable to the whole copper region, and I would not advise the reservation of any part of it as mineral land.

Jackson's chief assistants were J. D. Whitney and J. W. Foster, already noted, Dr. John Locke, and Dr. Wolcott Gibbs.

Agassiz's Physical Characters of Lake Superior, 1848.

In 1848, while occupying the chair of zoology and geology at Harvard University, Louis Agassiz, in company with Jules Marcou and a party of students, undertook an exploration of the Lake Superior region, the results of which were published in 1850, under the caption of Lake Superior; its Physical Character, Vegetation and Animals, compared with those of other and similar regions. Marcou would have us believe that this volume marked an epoch in natural history publications in America, this mainly on account of the superior style of its illustrations. Certainly there was much to justify the claim.

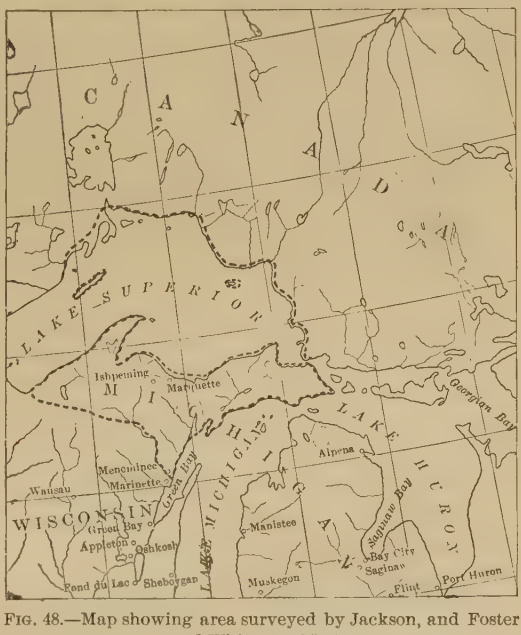

FIG. 48.—Map showing area surveyed by Jackson, and Foster and Whitney, 1847–49.

The country was nearly everywhere roadless, and transportation by water possible only through the aid of birch-bark canoes. As might be expected, the purely geological observations were of little value, excepting so far as they related to glaciation. Agassiz argued that the form of the lake was due to "a series of injections of trap dikes

of different characters, traversing the older rocks in various directions." He found six systems of these dikes, to the trend of which the various lake shores in a general way conformed. The relationship of the various copper deposits he attempted to explain on the somewhat remarkable, as well as ingenious, assumption that the material had been poured out in a melted condition, and, cooling quickly, remained in the native state, offering to the agencies of change a relatively small surface exposed in proportion to its mass. At a distance from the main mass, where the ejections were small with relatively large surfaces exposed, they became more or less completely changed into oxides, sulphides, carbonates, etc. The reader need scarcely be reminded that authorities to-day hold quite a different view, and regard the copper as having been precipitated by reduction to a native state from salts held in permeating solutions.

Naturally, Agassiz's views, as here set forth on the glacial phenomena of the region, are of paramount interest. He argued that the drift of all northeast America and northwest Europe was contemporaneous and due to a general ice sheet. Through a repetition of many of his former arguments he showed that a current of water sufficiently powerful to transport the large blocks found would have swept practically over the entire globe, and not have stopped abruptly, as did the drift, after reaching latitude 39° north. This limit of distribution of the bowlders to the northern latitudes also indicated to his mind that the matter of climate was an important factor. Water-transported material, he further argued, would not cause straight furrows and scratches, and the theory that such might be due to drifting icebergs was rejected on the ground that existing bergs were insufficient, and to produce such as were would necessitate a period of cold sufficient for his hypothetical polar ice cap. He pointed out that the northern erratics were rounded and widespread; that the highest hills were scratched and polished to their summits, while to the southward the mountain tops had protruded above the ice sheets and supplied the glaciers with their load of angular bowlders. He also called attention to the absence of marine or fresh water shells from the glacial (ground moraine) deposits, showing it was not subaqueous. Referring to the stratified deposits overlying the drift, he wrote:

> The various heights at which these stratified deposits occur above the level of the sea show plainly that since their accumulation the mainland has been lifted above the ocean at different rates in different parts of the country.

And, further:

> It must be at once obvious that the various kinds of loose materials all over the northern hemisphere have been accumulated, not only under different circumstances, but during long-continued subsequent distinct periods. To the first—or ice period—belong all phenomena connected with the transportation of erratic bowlders, polishing, scratching, etc., and during which the land stood at a higher level. To the second belong the stratified drift, such as indicate a depression of the continent.

Louis Agassiz was born in Motier, Switzerland, in 1807, and came into world-wide notoriety through his works on fossil fishes and his enthusiastic exploitation of the glacial discoveries of Hugi, Venetz, and Charpentier, while in Neuchatel. He came to America to better his finances in 1846, and after delivering courses of lectures before the Lowell Institute in Boston and in other of the eastern cities, accepted, in 1847, the professorship of geology and zoology in Harvard University. Agassiz was not, however, a geologist, and his service to this branch of science after coming to America was more as a teacher and through arousing public interest than by research. His enthusiasm was too great, his staying power too slight; he was too prone to jump at conclusions to make a good geologist, as shown in his hasty assumption that the bowlders of decomposition found by him in Brazil were drift bowlders and indicative of a former glacial period in that latitude.

Sketch of Agassiz.

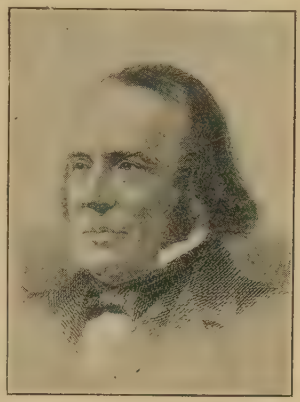

FIG. 49.—Louis Agassiz.

The work begun by Jackson in Michigan and under direction of the General Land Office in 1847 was, as already shown, continued by Messrs. J. W. Foster and J. D. Whitney. Their reports were issued in octavo form, Vol. I, on the copper lands, constituting House Executive Document No. 69, first session, Thirty-first Congress, 1850, and comprising 224 pages, with 12 plates and a facsimile of a map of Lake Superior made by the Jesuit missionaries in 1671. Vol. II, or Part 2, on the iron region, appeared as Senate Executive Document No. 4, special session, March, 1851. This comprised, all told, 406 pages, with 33 plates. A colored geological map of the area surveyed accompanied the report. Some of the more important items noted are as below:

Foster and Whitney's Work in Michigan, 1849-51.

FIG. 50.—John Wells Foster.

They stated that Lake Superior occupies an immense depression which has been for the most part excavated out of the soft sandstone of the Potsdam age. The configuration of that portion of the lake lying west of longitude 88 was deemed as due to two axes of elevation extending in parallel lines from the northeast to the southwest, which upraised the sandstone, causing it to form a synclinal valley.

This, it will be noted, is radically different from the idea put forward by Agassiz.

The conglomerate composed of rounded fragments of jaspery rock, so abundant throughout the copper region of the south shore of the lake, they regarded as a friction conglomerate, testifying to the "intensity of the force with which the eruptive rocks have been propelled from the interior through the earth's crust," the detritus having been redistributed by the waters, following in this the teachings of Von Buch. Their graphic account of the conditions under which it was supposed to have been formed is worthy of being reproduced entire:

We may suppose that at one time all of this district (i. e., the copper district) formed a part of the bed of the primeval ocean. Adopting the theory of a cooling globe, we may further suppose that the waters were in a heated condition and differed essentially in chemical composition from those of the present oceans. The earth's crust was intersected by numerous powerful fissures, and the communication between the exterior and interior was unobstructed. Volcanic phenomena were much more frequent and exerted on a grander scale. Each volcanic paroxysm would give rise to powerful currents and agitations of the water, and their abrading action in detaching portions of the preexisting rocks, and depositing them in beds and layers on the floor of the ocean, would operate with greater intensity than at the present time. We can trace the remains of one volcanic fissure extending from the head of Keweenaw Point, in a southwesterly direction, to the western limits of the district, and of another, in a parallel direction, from the head of Neepigon Bay to the western limits of Isle Royale. Along the lines of these fissures existed numerous volcanic vents, like those observed at this day in Peru, Guatemala, and Java, which were characterized by periods of activity and repose. From these vents were poured forth numerous sheets of trap, which flowed over the sands and clays then in the progress of accumulation. During the throes and convulsions of the mass portions of rock would become detached and rounded simply by the effects of attrition, and jets of melted matter be projected as volcanic bombs through the air or water, which, on cooling, would assume spheroidal forms; while other portions of the rock, in a state of minute mechanical division, would be ejected in the form of ashes and sand, which, mingling with the water, would be deposited as the oscillations subsided among the sands and pebbles at the bottom of the sea. During the whole of this period of volcanic activity the sands which now form the base of the Silurian system were in the progress of accumulation and became mingled with these igneous products. The level of the sea, as evidenced by the ripple marks, was subject to repeated alterations; sometimes it rose so shoal that the marks of the rippling waves were impressed on the sands, at others it sank to unfathomable depths.

In the process of consolidation the rocks became traversed by numerous fissures, and the water, charged with lime, was forced in like jets of steam, filling them with materials different from the inclosing mass. In this way the pores in the conglomerate and the vesicles of the amygdaloid were filled.

The formation of the copper and silver ores they regarded as due probably to electro-chemical agencies. To quote their own words:

The existence of two metals side by side, like copper and silver, each chemically pure and capable of being alloyed in any proportions; the accumulation of the latter near the cross courses or at the junction of two mineral planes; the changes in the metallic contents of lodes in their passage through different rocks, and the parallel

arrangement of the earthy gangues, all seem to indicate the existence of electrical currents during the period of their formation.

Concerning the origin of the drift and the phenomena of the groovings and striations of the rocks in the regions, they were still somewhat in the dark. The position of bowlders resting on stratified deposits of sand and clay was regarded as antagonistic to the theory of a general ice cap similar to that of the circumpolar region. It was thought that such might rather have been transported by floating ice (not icebergs) in the same manner that bowlders are even now each spring transported from the borders of the northern lakes and rivers and dispersed over the adjacent swamps and lowlands.

The slates of the region were looked upon as probably originally laid down as volcanic ashes and subsequently consolidated a by no means improbable theory. The specular and magnetic iron ores they, strangely enough, regarded as—

a purely igneous product, in some instances poured out, but in others sublimated, from the interior of the earth. We may conceive that the various rocks of the Azoic series were originally deposited in a nearly horizontal position. During the deposition of these strata, at various intervals sheets of plastic matter were poured forth from below and spread out upon the surface of the pre-existing strata. During this period the interior of the earth was the source of constant emanations of iron, which appeared at the surface in the form of a plastic mass in combination with oxygen, or rose in metallic vapors or as a sublimate, perhaps as a chloride; in the one case it covered over the surface like a lava sheet, in the other it was absorbed into the adjacent rocks or diffused through the strata in the process of formation.

The igneous rocks they classified as dolerite, anamesite, and basalt. The sandstone, which occupies almost exclusively the bed of Lake Superior and which occurs in isolated patches along the shore and on the islands, they rightly classed as Potsdam, differing in this respect with Jackson, who considered it as New Red, and from Locke and others, who thought it to be the equivalent of the Old Red or Devonian sandstone of Europe.

The work on the Paleozoic rocks, as given in Part II of these reports, was done by James Hall, of New York. The limestones first seen upon St. Marys River, Hall regarded as identical with the Chazy, Bird's-eye, Black River, and Trenton limestones of New York. The Cliff limestone of Owen he designated as the Galena limestone, which he erroneously regarded as a distinct member of the Lower Silurian system, not recognized in the East.

Hall's Report on Lake Superior Rocks.

In his chapter on the parallelism of the Paleozoic deposits of the United States and Europe, Hall called attention to the fact that

The simplest principles of elementary geology teach us that sedimentary beds, having the same thickness and same lithographical characters, can not have spread over an area so wide as that now included between the European and American continents. All sedimentary deposits must vary in character at remote points, as

the physical conditions of the ocean can not be presumed to have remained the same over a wide extent of surface. Under such circumstances, absolute parallelism is not to be sought for or expected. Calcareous deposits, as would naturally be supposed, have been found to be more persistent and more uniform in the character of their fossil contents; but these, over some portion of their extent, have often been invaded by argillaceous and arenaceous sediments, and the fauna is found to be in a greater or less degree influenced by such circumstances.

The following table was given, showing the subdivisions of the Paleozoic series in New York:

1. Potsdam sandstone.
2. Calciferous sandstone.
   Upper sandstone of Wisconsin and Minnesota similar to the Potsdam sandstone.
3. Chazy limestone.
4. Bird's-eye and Black River limestone.
5. Trenton limestone.
   Galena or lead-bearing limestone of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Illinois not recognized at the East.
6. Utica slate. } Included in the Hudson River group.
7. Hudson River shales. }
8. Gray sandstone. }
9. Oneida conglomerate.
10. Medina sandstone.
11. Clinton group.
12. Niagara group, coralline limestone of Schoharie.
13. Onondaga salt group.
14. Tentaculite or water limestone. } Lower Helderberg group.
15. Pentamerus limestone. }
16. Delthyris shaly limestone. }
17. Encrinal limestone. }
18. Upper Pentamerus limestone. }
19. Oriskany sandstone.
20. Cauda-galli grit. } Upper Helderberg group.
21. Schoharie grit. }
22. Onondaga limestone. }
23. Corniferous limestone. }
24. Marcellus shale. } Hamilton group.
25. Hamilton group. }
26. Tully limestone. }
27. Genesee slate. }
28. Portage group.
29. Chemung group.
30. Sandstone and shale of the Catskill Mountains.
31. Gray and yellow sandstone.
32. Great Carboniferous limestone.

The following was given to show the equivalency of the Cliff limestone with the New York group:

CLIFF LIMESTONE.

5. Trenton limestone.
Galena limestone. } Wanting at the east and southeast.
6–8. Hudson River group.
9. Oneida conglomerate. } Wanting at the west.
10. Medina sandstone.
11. Clinton group. } The Niagara and the calcareous portion of the Clinton.
12. Niagara group.
13. Onondaga salt group. Wanting west of Lake Michigan.
14. Tentaculite limestone.
15. Pentamerus limestone.
16. Delthyris shaly limestone. } Wanting in the States north of the Ohio River.
17. Encrinal limestone.
18. Upper Pentamerus limestone.
19. Oriskany sandstone. } Wanting at the west and southwest.
20. Cauda-galli grit.
21. Schoharie grit.
22. Onondago limestone.
23. Corniferous limestone.

The following table was intended to show the equivalency of the New York forms with those of Europe:

Llandeilo flags. { ? Trenton limestone, in part. ? Utica slate.

Caradoc sandstone. { Hudson River group. Clinton group, in part.

Wenlock series. { Clinton group, in part. Niagara group. Lower Helderberg limestones.

Ludlow series and Devonian system. { Upper Helderberg limestones. Hamilton group. Chemung group. Red sandstone and shale of Catskill Mountains.

The Chazy, Bird's-eye, and Black River limestones, the Onondaga salt group and the Oriskany sandstone he regarded as having no representation among British strata.

Commenting on the proportion of species represented by European authorities as passing from Devonian to Carboniferous, he wrote:

> It is so enormously great that we find no parallel to it in any preceding period. * * * From all these facts there seems to be but one conclusion, and that is, in the British Isles particularly, either there are remarkable exceptions to the general law in the continuation of species from one to another or that there is no foundation for a distinction between the Devonian and Carboniferous systems.

Further on he wrote:

> We can not avoid the conclusion that, if we adopt the Devonian system with the limits suggested by foreign writers, we must drop forever the attempt to recognize the Ludlow division of the Silurian system.

Desor on the Drift, 1852.

The drift phenomena of the region studied by Foster and Whitney were described by E. Desor, who divided the deposits into four classes, as follows, beginning with the lowermost:

1. A layer of coarse, pebbly loam called "coarse drift."
2. Clay resting either on the coarse drift or directly on the rock.
3. A deposit of sand, gravel, and pebbles, irregularly stratified, resting upon the clay or the bed rock.
4. Isolated bowlders scattered over the whole region.

While disclaiming any intention of giving a general theory for the causes and origin of the drift, he argued that the phenomena he described indicated neither paroxysmal agencies nor the operation of any single cause, however long continued. "They disclose a long series of events which have resulted from causes highly diversified, and as yet imperfectly known. Three periods are recognized in the history of the drift of the Lake Superior region: (1) 'The period of the grooving and polishing of the rocks,' which 'must be considered as the dawning of the drift epoch;' (2) a period of comparative quiescence, extending over a long period of time and during which the stratum of red clay was deposited. This is the second era of the drift. (3) The overlying stratum of sand and gravel presumably formed by water, but at higher levels than the clay and indicating a still further depression of the land. This period characterized by intervals of agitation and repose. He considered that earthquake waves, according to H. D. Rogers's ingenious theory, *might* be responsible in part for these."

The transportation of the bowlders, he thought, took place at the close of the drift epoch.

In another article in the American Journal of Science for the same year (1852), concerning the post-Pliocene of the Southern States and its relation to the Laurentian of the North and the deposits of the Mississippi Valley, Desor attempted to account for the large bowlders in the drift of Long Island by means of ice rafts. The bowlders in the post-Pliocene of the Southern States were doubtfully referred to water action only.

Desor, according to Marcou, was a German, who had come to America as private secretary to Agassiz, and whatever views he may have had on glaciation or other scientific subjects may be regarded as mainly absorbed rather than learned from observation. Through becoming over-presumptuous he had a falling out with his master, which resulted in his discharge in 1848 and return to Germany in 1852, passing thus beyond the limits of our field of study.

J. D. Dana, as already noted, served as geologist in the United States exploring expedition under Captain Wilkes, during the years 1838–42. The results of his observations during this time are embod-

ied in the tenth volume of the reports of the expedition, a royal octavo of 756 pages, with a folio atlas of 21 plates. Many of the conclusions given in this volume were first published in the columns of the American Journal of Science, and have already received attention.

Dana and the Wilkes Exploring Expedition.

One of the earliest results of Dana's work, as here chronicled, was the establishment of the principle that temperature influences the growth and distribution of corals. A claim to priority in this discovery was made by James P. Couthouy, and brought about a personal controversy somewhat bitter between the two authors. This has been alluded to elsewhere (p. 373).

The existence of harbors about the coral-bound reefs Dana attributed largely to the action of tidal and local marine currents, though the presence of fresh-water streams may have contributed toward the same end.

He rejected the then popular theory of the formation of coral reefs and atolls through the gradual subsidence of volcanoes, the crater corresponding to the lagoon and the rim to the belt of land, though believing that, beyond question, a subsidence had taken place throughout a large part of the Pacific, and hence that subsidence must form a part of any true theory of the origin of the reefs.

He believed that the atoll once formed a fringing reef about a high island. This, as the island subsided, became a barrier reef, which continued its growth while the land slowly disappeared. The area of waters within finally contained the last sinking peak, which itself finally disappeared, leaving only the barrier at the surface and an islet or two of coral in the inclosed lagoon.

These were essentially the views put forward independently by Darwin. The recent work of the younger Agassiz has shown them to be not wholly correct.

From the actual extent of the present coral reefs and islands Dana inferred that the whole amount of high land lost to the Pacific by this subsidence was at least 50,000 square miles, probably much greater, though he would not go so far as to conclude that a continent once occupied the place of the present ocean, or indeed of a portion of it.

In the discussion of the Hawaiian volcanoes it was noted that no apparent connection existed, so far as indicated by the phenomena of eruption, between Mount Loa and Kilauea, 16 miles distant and more than 10,000 feet lower. It was therefore concluded that the two conduits, which he assumed were once connected by a fissure, had become isolated through the solidifying of the lava between them, each conduit being possibly a separate branch of some deep-seated channel.

The wide difference in the height of the columns of lava in two volcanoes so near together as those noted above caused him also to doubt the statement so commonly made by writers of that day to the effect that volcanoes were safety valves.

Assuredly, if, while Kilauea is open on the flanks of Mount Loa — a vast gulf 3¼ miles in diameter — lavas still rise and are poured out, Kilauea is no safety valve even to the area covered by this single mountain alone.

The conclusions based upon the study of these Hawaiian volcanoes were to the effect that:

1. The majority of the Pacific volcanic summits were formed from successive eruptions of molten rock, alternating sometimes with cinder or fragmentary ejections.

2. That the eruptions are, in general, the result of a rising or ascent of the lavas, owing to the inflation by heat of such vaporizable substances as sulphur and water, the overflow or lateral outbreak taking place in consequence of the increased pressure from gravity and from the elasticity of the confined vapors, the contraction of the earth's surface being no more necessary for an eruption than the contraction of the sides of a pot of water to make it boil.

He concluded further that volcanic action usually proceeded from fresh water gaining access to a branch belonging to some particular outlet or vent, and not to a common channel at greater depth. The lack of sympathetic action between two neighboring vents was thus explained on the ground that the union of their channels "took place far below the level to which the waters that ordinarily feed the fires gain access."

To the elevation theories of volcanic craters advocated by Von Buch he took exception, as he did also to the theory of Bischoff, who appealed to the internal igneous fluids for the source of volcanic action.

The highly feldspathic, coarsely crystalline, and solid centers of certain volcanic mountains, in contrast with the more vesicular and less dense outer portions, he rightly ascribed to slowness in cooling, the central mass being protected on all sides from the external air. Incidentally he discussed a problem which has become known to modern petrographers as that of magmatic differentiation. He argued that, given a large crater like that of Kilauea, the rise of the lavas through the center would be accompanied by a descending current along the side, though of less distinctness. The essential constituents of a rock, for example, being augite and feldspar, wherever the temperature of the liquid mass becomes sufficiently lowered, there the feldspar will commence to solidify or will slowly stiffen in the midst of the fluid material made up of the other ingredients. Under these conditions the ascending vapors would urge the feldspar upward much less freely than the more liquid part of the lava, for the latter would yield more readily to the inflating vapors and thus become lighter and rise to the surface. This process, going on throughout the whole progress of the cone, would keep the center feldspathic below a short distance from the summit. The residue from the feldspathic crystallization, consisting of ferruginous silicates, would be brought upward in the

form of a frothy scoria which must on either side, in part, return to supply the place of the ascending current. On cooling, then, the more basaltic portions would constitute this exterior descending part. Thus, a feldspathic center and basaltic flanks would be the result of one and the same process. This feldspathic center, further, by being inclosed within a thick covering of rocks, would cool slowly, forming, perhaps, disseminated crystals in the earthy base, or, if cooling sufficiently slowly, a crystalline granular mass like granite or syenite.

He recognized the fact—

that particular rocks have no necessary relation to time, excepting so far as time is connected with a difference in the earth's temperature or climate and also in oceanic or atmospheric pressure, for, if the elements are at hand, it requires only different circumstances as regards pressure, heat, and slowness of cooling to form any igneous rock the world contains.

The date of the beginning of volcanic activity on the Hawaiian Islands he placed as far back as the early Carboniferous or Silurian epoch, and believed that: (1) There were as many separate rents in the region as there are now islands; (2) that each rent was widest in the southeast portion; (3) that the southernmost rent was the largest, and (4) that the order of extinction of the volcanoes was as follows:

1. Kauai.
2. Western Oahu.
3. Western Maui (Mount Eeka).
4. Eastern Oahu.
5. Northwestern Hawaii (Mount Kea).
6. Southeast Maui (Mount Kale-a-kala).
7. Southeast Hawaii (Mount Loa).

From the general arrangement of the islands in the Pacific and the study of the phenomena connected therewith the conclusion was reached that the Hawaiian group originated in a series of rents or ruptures seldom continued at the surface for a long distance, but frequently advancing successively, one after the other, causing the resultant islands to appear in the form of a curve rather than a straight line, and, further, it was announced that: (1) While straight ranges are of occasional occurrence, curved ranges are still more common; (2) that curvature may arise either from a gradual change of trend in the subordinate parts or from the position of these parts in a series; (3) that the same great chain may change its direction 60° or more, and consequently (4) the course of a mountain chain can be no evidence of its age. In this it will be observed he differed radically from Elie de Beaumont.

Dana noted further that the Pacific islands were arranged mainly in two systems of linear groups nearly at right angles with each other, the linear groups being based on a series of ruptures instead of a single uninterrupted fissure. The prevailing uniformity of trend of

these fissures or ruptures he believed to be due both to the nature of the crust fractured and the direction of the fracturing forces. He accepted the doctrine of an earth cooled from a state of fusion, and regarded the influence of electric currents on the position of continents in process of formation as an established fact. An outer crust having once formed, the deep-seated crystallization would go on at a rate inconceivably slower, and circumstances would be favorable for a coarse crystallization of the material below and for the operation of electrical currents. The rupturing force he believed to be contraction caused by cooling. He argued that a cooling globe incrusted over by refrigeration while contraction was still going on beneath would, like a Prince Rupert's drop, be in a state of tension. Such a tension is bound to produce fractures and displacements, the direction of which would depend on rate of cooling in different parts and on the change in the earth's oblateness accompanying a diminution of its diameter. He concluded, from the absence of volcanoes in the interior of continents, that these portions of the globe cooled first and became solid; the intermediate portions cooling later and at a less rapid rate contracted most, since the crust was here thinnest. The oceanic areas would therefore be gradually subsiding and the tension increasing: moreover the tension, from its nature, would be exerted nearly horizontally. He inferred, therefore, that the subsiding oceans have produced the mountains of the continents, and that the oceanic and continental areas have never changed places, and saw no reason for appealing to an incomprehensible subterranean force for the uplifting of the mountain chains or the continents. Such may have been "only a result on the whole of the deepening of the ocean's bed. It is obvious * * * that the earth has reached its present condition by gradual progress from a state of prolonged igneous action through epochs of increasing quiet, interrupted by distant periods of violence, to the present time, when even the gentlest oscillations of the crust have almost ceased." These same ideas he had previously put forward in a paper in the American Journal of Science on the Origin of some of the Physical Features of the Earth's Crust, noted elsewhere.

In his discussion of the origin of the coal beds of New South Wales, Dana concluded—

> that the layers of the coal series were probably deposited by fresh-waters during the different stages of annual floods and wider deluges occurring at more distant periods; that the subsidence, which may have been gradual during the coal deposits, finally submerged the whole.

Another important observation bearing on the same subject was made when writing on the geology of Luzon and its coal beds:

> One of the interesting points about this lake (Laguna de Bay) is the fact that vast quantities of plants live on its surface and pass down the river into the bay, carry-

ing along great numbers of fresh-water snails of different species. Here we have, therefore, fresh-water shells and vegetation which is not marine accumulating under salt water, for they sink after a while and must become buried in the mud of the bottom, along with the remains of marine life. This floating vegetation illustrates a theory with regard to the vegetation of the coal beds.

The gold excitement of California in 1848–49 drew attention to a region the geology of which was practically unknown. Fremont's expedition to California and Oregon in 1843–44 was not accompanied by a geologist, and the few fossils collected were described by James Hall. Some Notes on the California Gold Region, six pages only, were given by C. S. Lyman in the American Journal of Science for 1849, while J. D. Dana had touched upon the subject during his return overland after the disaster to the Wilkes Exploring Expedition. The main gold-bearing area was, therefore, practically an unknown land. The appearance in 1850 of Philip T. Tyson's Geology and Industrial Resources of California was consequently important. Tyson seems to have gone to California in 1849 as a private citizen, but so great was the demand for information concerning the region that on his return he made a report to Col. J. J. Abert, which was printed as a Senate document the year following.

Tyson's Work in California, 1849–1851.

In this report Tyson gave eight sections across the gold country, two of which extended from the coast to the Sierras. These were published as mere outlines, showing the direction of the dip of the rocks, but with no pretense to scale. He described the western flank of the Sierras as consisting of a vast mass of metamorphic and hypogene rocks, stretching from the Sacramento Valley to the axis of the mountains. The metamorphic rocks, mainly slates, contained the veins of auriferous quartz, through the breaking down of which had been derived the gold found in the gravels of the ravines.

Making all due allowance for Tyson's laudable desire to check the wide and rapidly spreading excitement, bordering almost upon insanity, caused by grossly exaggerated accounts of the richness of the mines, still it would seem as if through overzealousness, or perhaps through actual ignorance, he underestimated their value, both to his own and others detriment. But it must be remembered that at that time and in that remote region, deposits, either placer or in veins, that could to-day be profitably worked, were valueless. He warned prospective investors that the large bodies of gold-bearing quartz found on the surface would if followed be found to be "nothing more than descending veins securely held between solid rocks, and that the cost of mining such was enormous, whilst the chances were almost wholly against their containing gold in proportion that would pay expenses." Indeed, Tyson regarded the prospect of a profitable mining of the veins as "altogether too remote and uncertain to be relied on."

During the session of 1847–48 the legislature of Maryland passed an act providing for the appointment and commission of a "person of ability, integrity, and suitable practical and scientific attainments," who should act as agricultural chemist for the State. These requirements seem to have been met in the person of Dr. James Higgins, who received the appointment and held the office until 1858, during which time he issued five reports. The office was not really a geological one, and the matter is mentioned here as bearing upon the subject only indirectly. During the session of 1858 bills were brought before the legislature to have the title of the office changed to *geologist* and, again, to *chemist and geologist*. Both, however, failed. Higgins was succeeded in 1859 by the Philip Tyson above noted, whose first report of 145 octavo pages and appendix of 20 pages was issued February 14, 1860. Like the reports of his predecessor, this was given up very largely to a discussion of agricultural questions, but contained chapters on the Minerals Comprising the Rocks of the State; The Mineral Character of Rocks; The Consideration of the Rocks as Grouped into Geological Formations, and also their Geographic Distribution in Maryland; and on Chemical and Physical Geology, in which the question of the origin of soils through rock weathering was discussed.

Higgins's Work in Maryland, 1848–1858.

Tyson's Work in Maryland.

FIG. 51.—Philip Thomas Tyson.

The main interest in the work, from our present standpoint, lies in the colored geological map (and sections) which accompanied it, and which had the merit of being the first special map of the State, the area having, of course, been included in the general maps of Maclure and others. The various formations were classified according to the scheme of Rogers for the map of Pennsylvania, and a table given showing which of these were found within the State limits. The second report, which appeared in 1862, comprised 92 pages, and was given over almost wholly to a discussion of economic questions, including the soils and ores, coal, marbles, clays, etc. From the presence of fossil cycads, found associated with the iron ores, Tyson was disposed to consider these and the clays in which they occur as belonging to the oolitic period.[a]

[a] L. F. Ward, in his paper in the Nineteenth Annual Report of the U. S. Geological Survey, 1897–98, puts these down as Cretaceous (Potomac).

CHAPTER V.

THE ERA OF STATE SURVEYS, THIRD DECADE, 1850–1859.

The period of financial depression, which proved so fatal to the State surveys during the last decade, had run its course. Several new States had in the meantime been added to the Union, some of which showed commendable promptness in authorizing geological surveys. New organizations were thus formed in fourteen States, eight of which had made no previous attempt. These eight, in alphabetical order, are California, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Mississippi, Missouri, Texas, and Wisconsin. Six States for the second time undertook the work—Michigan, New Jersey, North and South Carolina, Tennessee, and Vermont. The National Government was also active, the most important undertaking being the surveys in connection with the proposed Pacific railways. In addition to these, Capt. R. B. Marcy made a survey of the Red River region of Louisiana, Maj. W. H. Emory one of the Mexican boundary, and Colonel Pope one into the arid region of New Mexico along the thirty-second parallel. To each and all of these expeditions geologists, or at least naturalists, were attached. In the British provinces Logan's survey was doing good service, while Dawson, alone and unofficially, was working in Nova Scotia.

This was an era of publication, not merely of reports, but of books. Emmons's American Geology, Dawson's Acadian Geology, Hitchcock's Geology of the Globe, Lesley's Manual of Coal and his Iron Manufacturer's Guide, Owen's Key to the Geology of the Globe, and Whitney's Metallic Wealth of the United States were among the more important local productions. The publication of by far the greatest importance of this decade was, however, the long-delayed report of the Pennsylvania survey, to which allusion has been made elsewhere two ponderous quartos which were truly epoch-making, although many of the more striking features had found their way into print elsewhere. The issuance of Murchison's Siluria, the ninth edition of Lyell's Principles, and F. Roemer's Die Kreidebildungen von Texas were also matters worthy of note. Hitchcock's Surface Features belongs to this era, and marked the beginning of systematic study along lines of physiography. Among the new names will be found those of W. P. Blake, J. W. Dawson, Leo Lesquereux, Oscar Lieber,

William Logan, James G. Percival, J. S. Newberry, James Safford, G. C. Swallow, Alexander Winchell, and Amos H. Worthen.

An agricultural and geological survey of Mississippi was inaugurated in connection with the State University through an act of the legislature approved March 5, 1850. Under this act Dr. John Millington was appointed professor of geology and agriculture, in connection with the professorship of chemistry, which he already held. Professor Millington, however, relinquished the situation the latter part of 1850 without having made a report, and in 1852 was succeeded by Prof. B. L. C. Wailes. Professor Wailes made but one report, this an octavo volume of 356 pages and an appendix. Of this, but pages 207 to 288 deal with matters strictly geological. The work is by no means of a high order and made no permanent impression upon the science of geology either in the State or country at large. His colored sections are crude and the language pedantic. In fact, there is scarcely a single original observation which can be unhesitatingly accepted, owing to the general air of unfamiliarity with the subject that everywhere prevails.

Millington and Wailes's Work in Mississippi, 1850 1852.

He made no attempt to classify the rocks he described otherwise than Cretaceous, Tertiary, and Quaternary, and inferentially classed among the latter the sandstones of the Grand Gulf group, which he mentioned as overlying the Diluvial gravel. He traced correctly, according to Hilgard, the northern limits of Grand Gulf formation from the Mississippi across the Pearl River to Brandon, and described its occurrence in southwestern Mississippi.

In 1851 Ebenezer Emmons, heretofore connected with the survey of New York, was appointed State geologist of North Carolina, a position he continued to hold until the time of his death in 1863, though the work of the survey came to a close in 1860, owing to the outbreak of the civil war. Emmons was assisted by his son, Ebenezer Emmons, jr., and during his period of office issued five reports, the first, bearing the date of 1852, forming an octavo pamphlet of 181 pages. It related principally to the geology of the eastern counties and the coal. Emmons recognized the fact that the coal-bearing rocks of North Carolina were not of the same age as those of Pennsylvania, and regarded them as presumably of the same age as those of the Richmond coal fields, which at that time were thought by Prof. W. B. Rogers to be Liassic, though Emmons questioned if they might not be Permian or Triassic.

E. Emmons's Work in North Carolina, 1851.

The finding of saurian remains in the sandstones he regarded as pointing to their possible Permian age, though—

> The meager list of plants and animals * * * furnish only grounds for conjecture to what age the formations belong. My opinion, derived from all the facts and circumstances known to me, inclines me to adopt the belief that it is the upper New

Red sandstone. Still, if the Richmond coal basin is of the same age as the coal rocks of North Carolina, geologists will be disposed to place the series along with the Oolites or Lias, as Profs. W. B. Rogers and Sir Chas. Lyell have done.[a]

Emmons in this work rejected completely the old Wernerian classification of (1) Primitive, (2) Transition, and (3) Tertiary, and introduced that given in tabular form below. It seems to have met with little favor, and was not, so far as the present writer is aware, adopted in a single instance elsewhere.

EMMONS'S ROCK CLASSIFICATION, PROPOSED IN 1852.

I. Pyrocrystalline—crystallized by the agency of fire. Primary of authors.
II. Pyroplastic—molded by fire. Ancient and modern volcanic rock of authors.
III. Hydroplastic—molded by water. Sediments of authors.

The first class is divided into two sections:

1. Unstratified pyrocrystalline, as granite, hypersthene rock, pyrocrystalline limestone, sienite, magnetic iron ores.
2. Stratified pyrocrystalline gneiss, mica slate, talcose slate, and hornblende steatite.

The second class is divided into two sections, also:

1. Modern pyroplastic rocks, lavas, tuffs, pumice, and all the products of volcanoes, which are cooled in the air.
2. Ancient pyroplastic rocks, the ancient lavas, cooled under water, basalt, porphyry, and green stone.

The third class is divided into systems, most of which are admitted by geologists of this day.

The systems belonging to the class of hydroplastic rocks, the consolidated and loose sediments, are exhibited in the following table:

I. Tertiary system:
    1. Postpliocene.
    2. Pliocene.
    3 Miocene.
    4. Eocene.
II. Cretaceous system:
    1. Upper Cretaceous, including the true chalk, with flints.
    2. Lower Cretaceous, including the green sand, iron sands, etc.
III. Wealdon, unknown in the United States.
IV. Oolite and Lias.
V. New Red Sandstone or Trias:
    1. Upper.
    2. Middle.
    3. Lower.

[a] At a meeting of the Boston Society of Natural History on January 4, 1854, Prof. W. B. Rogers summed up the evidence regarding the red sandstone of Virginia and North Carolina, and found it "to confirm the conclusion of their Jurassic date." The fossils thus far formed in the more western red sandstone belt and its extension through Pennsylvania and New Jersey showed this also to be Jurassic, a little lower probably than that of Virginia and North Carolina. He felt that there was little doubt but that the same conclusions would apply also to the sandstone of the Connecticut Valley.

VI. Permian system.
VII. Carboniferous system.
VIII. Devonian system.
IX. Silurian system.
1. Upper.
2. Lower.
X. Taconic system.

Emmons's second report, comprising 351 pages, was issued in 1856. It related chiefly to the geology and mines of the so-called midland counties. In 1858 his Report on the Agriculture of the Eastern Counties was issued. About one-third of this, notwithstanding its title, was given up to paleontological matters. In 1860 two more reports, both short, appeared—the one devoted mainly to agriculture and the other a special report on the swamp lands.

In the report for 1858 Emmons announced a principle which has since been enunciated in somewhat different words by our most eminent authority on soils. This, in his own words, is as follows:

> In the examination of soils the physical properties require as much attention as the chemical, for in order that a good chemical mixture of elements may be fertile they should possess a certain degree of adhesiveness or closeness which will retain water.

A good deal of attention was given to the marls of the State with reference to their availability for fertilizing purposes, though he recognized the fact that, unfortunately for the best interests of agriculture, these marls are too sandy to bear transportation to distant points.

A geological survey of Illinois was organized under an act of the general assembly approved February 17, 1851. This act authorized the governor, auditor, and treasurer to employ a competent geologist, who was required to make "a complete geological and mineralogical survey of the entire territory of the State," and provided that—

Norwood's work in Illinois, 1851 1857.

> The said geologist should proceed to ascertain the order, successive arrangement, relative position, dip, and comparative magnitude of the several strata or geological formations in the State, and to search for and examine all the beds and deposits of ores, coals, clays, marls, rocks, and such other mineral substances as may present themselves; to obtain chemical analyses of the same, and to determine by barometrical observations the relative elevation of the different portions of the State.

He was also required "to procure and preserve an entire suite of the different specimens found in the State, to be preserved and properly arranged in a cabinet, and placed in the office of the secretary of state in the State Capitol;" and eventually "to publish with the final reports a geological map of the State."

Under the provisions of this act Dr. J. G. Norwood was appointed State geologist, and the work was begun in October, 1851, by an

examination of the formations exposed in the bluffs of the Ohio River between Shawneetown and Cairo.

The act appropriated the sum of $3,000 a year for carrying on the work. In 1853 the amount was increased to $5,000, with $500 additional for topographical purposes. Up to January, 1857, some $27,000 had been expended, though no report appears to have been made.

The usual trials of a State geologist seem to have come upon the path of Mr. Norwood and perhaps some that were unusual. Be that as it may, a committee was appointed to investigate the conditions of the office. The committee reported, however, that in their belief the money had been well expended, a large amount of work had been done, and that well done, and they recommended an appropriation of the sum of $6,500 to enable Mr. Norwood to complete a report on the economic resources of the State, on which he was then engaged.

FIG. 52.—Joseph Granville Norwood.

The report of the committee seems, however, to have failed of its purpose, since the only outcome was a small octavo pamphlet of less than 100 pages devoted wholly to a discussion of the coals of the State, accompanied by a considerable number of analyses. This report bore the date of 1857, and was Norwood's last as well as first.[a] It was accompanied by a small, one-page, colored geological map of the State.

Presumably, all members of the legislature were not as favorably disposed toward Doctor Norwood as were the members of the investigating committee, for the following year (1858) he was supplanted by Mr. A. H. Worthen, who had been connected with James Hall on the State survey of Iowa.

In 1852 the question of the reestablishment of the geological survey of Indiana was agitated, but nothing came of it until the following year, when, acting under a recommendation of Governor J. A. Wright, the legislature made a small appropriation to become available in January, 1854. With this for a beginning, the governor appointed Dr. Ryland T. Brown State geologist. The venture was, however, short lived. Brown made but one report, which the legislature refused to publish, and at the same time refused further appropriation for continuing the survey,

Second Attempt at a Geological Survey of Indiana, 1852.

[a] In 1855 Norwood, in connection with Mr. Henry Patton, published in the Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences a paper comprising some 77 pages of text relating to the work thus far done.

the main reason given for such action being an overvaluation of the Indiana coals on the part of Brown. The report, it should be mentioned, was subsequently published in the report of the board of agriculture.

In 1852, in compliance with a resolution of the United States Senate, Capt. R. B. Marcy was directed to proceed "without unnecessary delay" to make an examination of the upper Red River and the country immediately bordering upon it from the mouth of Cache Creek to its sources. The officers of the expedition, which left Fort Belknap, Texas, on the 2d of May, consisted of Captain Marcy, in charge; Bvt. Capt. George B. McClellan, U. S. Engineer; and Dr. G. G. Shumard, the last named, in addition to his duties as surgeon, acting as naturalist. The report submitted formed an octavo volume of 320 pages with 65 plates, of which 25 may be considered as geological, 6 of these being of invertebrate fossils. The geological part proper comprised but 32 pages, which were by President Edward Hitchcock, of Amherst College. The invertebrate fossils were described by B. F. Shumard.

G. G. Shumard's Work in 1852.

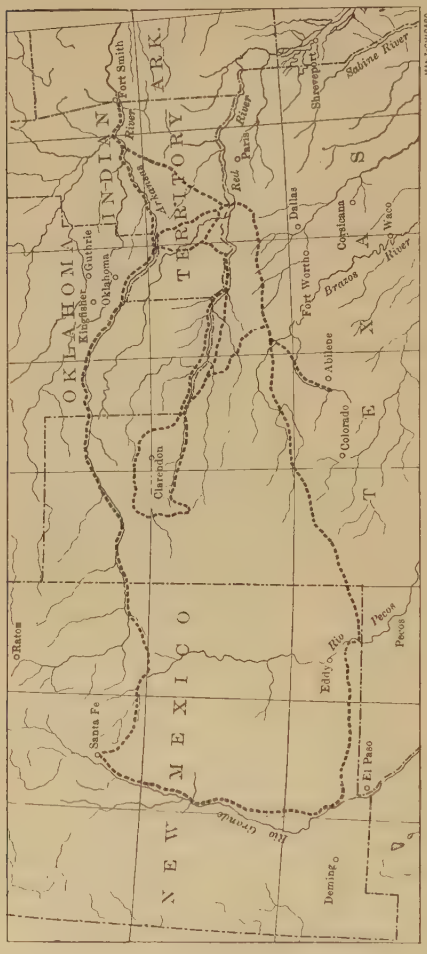

FIG. 53.—Map showing routes of Marcy and Shumard, 1849-52.

Dr. G. G. Shumard's report consisted of a brief summary of the geology of a portion of northwestern Arkansas, which he considered as essential to a proper understanding of that which was to follow, succeeded by memoranda of the various types of rocks, minerals, and formations passed over each day. It was accompanied by a colored geological section from Fort Belknap, Texas, to Washington County, Arkansas, showing a granitic axis flanked on either side by Carboniferous limestone, in its turn overlaid by Coal Measures, and with Cretaceous deposits between Fort Wichita and Cross Timbers in Texas.

In the paleontological report by Dr. B. F. Shumard there were described Carboniferous fossils from Washington and Crawford counties, Arkansas, and Cretaceous forms from Fort Wichita and the Cross Timbers regions of Texas.

Hitchcock, in his report, dwelt particularly on the possible Carboniferous age of various beds of coal, reported by Shumard, and the economic value of the gypsum, as well as the ores of copper and gold. His reference to the canyons of the Red River is particularly interesting in view of his early writings regarding the Connecticut (p. 310):

> You seem in doubt whether this gorge was worn away by the river or is the result of some paroxysmal convulsion. You will allow me to say that I have scarcely any doubt that the stream itself has done the work. The fact that when a tributary stream enters the main river it passes through a tributary canyon seems to me to show conclusively that these gorges were produced by erosion and not by fracture.

Hubbard and Dana on Subaerial Erosion, 1852.

Two papers on the subjects of rock decay and erosion, of this year, are worthy of consideration. Prof. Oliver P. Hubbard, of Dartmouth College, during a study of the trap dikes, noted that the same could be traced continuously across the country, at varying levels, from mountain top to valley bottom. From this fact he argued that the valleys had been carved out through decomposition and erosion since the dikes were formed. The difference in altitude at the various outcrops gave, then, a measure of the amount of erosion.

FIG. 54.—Oliver Payson Hubbard.

Dana's observations, though of a somewhat different nature, were none the less interesting. In writing on denudation in the Pacific, he took the ground that the ocean is powerless to excavate valleys along the coast, and that the deep valleys like those of Tahiti are due to subaerial decomposition and erosion, an observation no geologist of to-day would venture to doubt.

Trask's Geological Survey of California, 1853.

In March, 1853, by resolution of the senate of the State of California, Dr. John B. Trask was called upon to furnish information in relation to the geology of the State. As a result Doctor Trask submitted material issued in a pamphlet of 30 pages, published by the assembly in the session of 1853. By a joint resolution which passed the senate and assembly on May 6, 1853, Trask was authorized to make a further examination of some parts of the Sierra Nevada and Coast Range mountains. As a result of this and subsequent acts there were issued reports on the geology of the region mentioned in 1854, 1855, and 1856.

The classification adopted by Trask was that of the older geologists of his time, the rocks being divided merely into Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary. Although fossils were found, he did not attempt to describe them, and seemed in most cases to fail to realize their value as indicative of any particular geological horizon. His ideas regarding metamorphism were somewhat crude. Thus, he stated in his first report:

> It is a well-known fact that intrusive dikes of trap in passing through limestone will change the calcareous formation to true talcose rocks.

He divided the State into three divisions: First, a primary or central district, included between latitude 38° 30′ and 40° north; second, the northern district, included between 40° and 42° north; and third, the southern district, included between 38° 30′ and 36° north. The rocks of the primary district, he stated, are for the most part primitive, being composed of granite, porphyry, trap, and other allied rocks, of which serpentines form the one important part. The sedimentary rocks of the district were divided into first, argelite (*sic*) slates; second, conglomerates; and third, sandstones, the last named being regarded as probably of Miocene age.

Fig. 55.—John Boardman Trask.

The rocks in the northern district were described as of essentially the same character, a few minor differences only being noted. The southern district contained many rocks in common with the other two, although there were in addition many basaltic areas. He found a primary limestone in the area between the American and Merced rivers, and evidence of at least three successive periods of upheaval in this portion of the continent.

In his second report he described the geology of the most elevated portions of the counties of Butte, Sierra, Yuba, Nevada, and Placer; also the more southern counties of San Francisco, Santa Clara, Santa Cruz, Monterey; the north part of San Luis Obispo, Tulare, Mariposa, Tuolumne, Alameda, Contra Costa, and San Joaquin. During the months of October and November he visited Nevada and Calaveras counties. He pointed out the presence of post-Pliocene fossils in argillaceous sandstone of the Coast mountains between Point Pinos and Nacismiento River. He divided the Tertiary rocks as below:

Period.	Group.	Where found.
Eocene	Middle	Calaveras County, at Murphys and other localities. Bones of extinct animals, etc.
Miocene		North and south of San Francisco in the Coast and Monte Diablo mountains. Consisting of marine shells, with most of the species extinct.
Pliocene	Lower	Coast mountains and Gabilan Spur. Also in cavern deposits in Calaveras County.
Post-Pliocene		Southwest of Monterey. Marine shells, all of existing species.

He had no hesitation in saying that no coal would be found in any part of the Coast Range south of the thirty-fifth parallel of north latitude, though the presence of a supposed Carboniferous limestone in Shasta County led him to express a hope that the desired material might yet be found within the limits of the State.[a] In his report for 1855 the predominating fossiliferous rocks of San Luis Obispo and Santa Barbara counties were considered to be of Miocene age. The San Bernardino Mountains were described as made up for the most part of primitive rocks, granite forming by far the larger part of their highest ridges and peaks.

In this connection it is well to note that, at the request of A. D. Bache, of the Coast Survey, W. P. Blake prepared in 1855 a brief paper on the physical geology and geography of the coast of California from Bodega Bay to San Diego. Blake regarded the sedimentary rocks of Punta de los Reyes as probably of Miocene age, the sandstone at the entrance of San Francisco Bay as Tertiary, and the metamorphic rock of the peninsula as an altered sandstone. The serpentine of Lime Point was shown to be eruptive, as was also the granite of Cypress Point and the Bay of San Carlos, and younger than the conglomerate.

This same year (1853) there was organized a geological survey of Missouri with G. C. Swallow at its head, and Dr. A. Litton, F. B. Meek, Maj. F. Hawn, and Dr. B. F. Shumard as assistants. Five reports were published. The first, bearing the date November 10, 1853, consisted of but four pages. The second, dated 1854, comprised over 400 pages, including the reports of the assistants above mentioned. None of the sections nor maps given were colored, nor were any new principles or striking

Swallow's Geological Survey of Missouri, 1853.

[a] These hopes were partially realized, lignite coal, but of Cretaceous age, having been found and to some extent worked in Alameda, Amador, Contra Costa, Fresno, Kern, Monterey, Orange, Riverside, and San Bernardino counties.

features brought out. The work as a whole is an extremely uninteresting array of details, essential to the geographical extension of geological knowledge. Some space was devoted to economic geology, a consideration of soils, etc. Doctor Litton's report consisted almost wholly of details of lead, copper, and iron mines. Perhaps the most important economic item in Meek's report was his calling attention to the limited area of the coal beds, which lie in narrow basins in the encrinal limestone.

The third annual report of progress (6 pages) appeared in 1857, the fourth (14 pages) in 1859, and the fifth (19 pages) in 1861. G. C. Broadhead, who later was himself State geologist, became an assistant during 1857–1861, J. G. Norwood in 1858–1861, Henry Engelmann in 1857, and Dr. John Locke in 1860.

During the period which intervened between the publication of the second report and the stopping of the survey in 1861, a large portion of the State had been visited by members of the corps, and full reports were written on the following counties: Cape Girardeau, Perry, St. Genevieve, Jefferson, Crawford, Phelps, Pulaski, Laclede, Wright, Ozark (including Douglas), Clark, Morgan, Miller, Saline, Chariton, Macon, Randolph, Shelby, Osage, and Maries.

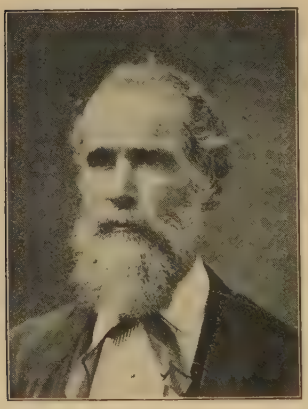

FIG. 56.—Garland Carr Broadhead.

After the survey had been discontinued the legislature authorized L. D. Morse and G. C. Swallow to publish all the results of the work of the previous seven years, but the project was abandoned on account of the expense.

While nearly all the State and land-office surveys organized up to 1850 had economic ends in view, and while, further, numerous papers of a more or less economic character had appeared from the hands of various writers from time to time, yet literature relating to American ore deposits remained scant and of an extremely unsatisfactory character.

J. D. Whitney's Metallic Wealth of the United States, 1854.

The appearance in 1854 of Whitney's Metallic Wealth of the United States marked, therefore, an important epoch. The work comprised upward of 500 octavo pages, and though written with especial reference to the ore deposits of the United States, contained references to those of all the principal foreign localities as well and remained the standard work of reference up to the time of the appearance of Kemp's Ore Deposits of the United States in 1893.

Many of the principles set down by Whitney have, naturally, been

shown to be erroneous, as he himself lived to recognize. Thus, regarding the occurrence of gold, he wrote:

> In general it may be said that the older the geological formation the greater the probability of its containing valuable ores and metals.

And further:

> There is room for doubt whether the great gold deposits of the world did not originate exclusively in the Paleozoic strata, since we are not aware that the rocks which have been proved to be of Azoic age have been found to be auriferous.

In this, it will be noted, he followed the teaching of Murchison.

To the reader of to-day it will seem scarcely possible that, at the date of Whitney's writing, there were no mines worked for silver alone in the United States, the supply of the metal coming almost wholly from the native gold of California. Argentiferous galena had been worked to a slight extent, as at the Washington mine in Davidson County, North Carolina, but work was suspended at the time of his writing. How little the silver resources of the West were realized is shown by Whitney's comment on the rapid increase of the gold output from year to year and the comparative decrease in that of silver. He wrote:

> Silver is, in a geological point of view, the metal best adapted for a standard of value, since, possessing all the valuable qualities which make gold suitable for that purpose, it is not liable to those fluctuations in its production to which this latter is exposed. There is no discovery of a new continent to be looked forward to whose mines shall deluge the world with silver, and any increase in the amount of this metal produced must come chiefly from the working of mining regions already known.

Yet Whitney himself lived to see the annual output of American silver become so great as to practically remove it from the list of precious metals and cause it to be rejected for all but subsidiary coinage.

Whitney recognized the fact that none of the deposits of lead in the Mississippi Valley could be considered as coming under the head of true veins (i. e., fissure veins), and that the productive deposits did not generally exceed a hundred feet in thickness in the Galena (Lower Silurian) limestone immediately overlying the Trenton. No ore of consequence was known to occur in the so-called "Blue Limestone" (Trenton, Bird's-eye, Chazy, and Black River) and it was not considered probable that the fissures would ever be found to extend through the intervening sandstone into the Lower Magnesian beds. Sinking through the sand into these latter beds was, therefore, considered as mere random exploration and a foolish enterprise.

He classified the ore deposits as (1) simple alluvial deposits which were recognized as residual from the decomposing limestone; (2) deposits in vertical fissures which had a very limited longitudinal extent, and (3) deposits in flat sheets. All of these were regarded as

deposits from aqueous solution which took place either in depressions of the surface or in vertical fissures of the nature of gash veins produced by the shrinkage of the calcareous strata.[a]

These views differed from the more modern in that it is now deemed as probable that the ores were first precipitated in an ocean in which they were held in solution as sulphates and reduced to sulphides through the decomposing organic matter; that subsequently, through the action of percolating surface waters, the same were once more oxidized, segregated in the fissures, and reduced a second time to the condition of sulphides. The production of the mines in the Mississippi Valley he regarded as having even then reached its maximum.

Whitney recognized the eruptive nature of the Iron Mountain masses of Missouri, and apparently regarded the hematite ores of the Lake Superior region as also of an eruptive nature (see also p. 417), though the later work of Van Hise has shown them to have had a chemical origin. Concerning the specular and magnetic iron ores of New York, he thought to have found the evidence of direct eruptive origin as perhaps less conspicuous, many exhibiting appearances of secondary action, such as might have been brought about by volcanic agencies and powerful currents which swept away and abraded portions of the original eruptive masses, "rearranging their particles and depositing them again in the depressions of the strata." The lenticular beds of ore occurring parallel with the stratification were particularly referred to as originating in this way.

A year later (November, 1855) Whitney had in the American Journal of Science an article on the changes which take place in the structure and composition of mineral veins, which is of interest in connection with the recent revival of the subject of secondary enrichment of ore deposits. He here described the now well-known copper deposits of Ducktown, Tennessee, and the superficial alteration of the vein matter, and called attention to the fact that the black ore, then being mined, was formed by a process of natural concentration by surface water, which was constantly decomposing the material above the permanent water level and carrying it downward to the point where it was stopped by the solid portion of the vein. By this means a large portion of the copper once disseminated throughout perhaps 100 feet of vein stone had become concentrated into a thickness of perhaps 2 or 3 feet.

In June, 1854, Lewis Harper, or properly, Ludwig Hafner, was elected by the trustees to the chair of geology in the University of

[a] Dr. Henry King, in a sketch of the geology of the Mississippi Valley, read before the Association of American Geologists and Naturalists in 1844, and printed in the American Journal of Science for that year, argued that the ores of zinc, copper, and lead occurring in the Cliff limestone were deposited contemporaneously with the inclosing rock.

Mississippi, which act, under the law, constituted him also as State geologist, and Millington, whose work is mentioned on p. 430, was forced to resign.

Harper's Work in Mississippi, 1854–1857.

In 1855 Harper was relieved of a portion of his duties as instructor in the university in order that he might personally take the field, and an appropriation of $1,000 secured for the employment of an assistant geologist, which place was offered to Eugene W. Hilgard, then fresh from studies at Heidelberg. Hilgard and Harper worked together during the season of 1855, but the dual position of State geologist and professor in the university proved unsatisfactory to the trustees; the law was repealed in 1856, and Harper also forced to resign, though Hilgard was continued as an assistant.

At the legislative session of 1856–57 Harper succeeded in securing the passage of an act providing for the printing of the second annual report of the agricultural and geological survey of the State and for other purposes. This resulted in a complete separation of the survey from all connection with the State university, the establishment of a geological survey, and the office of a State geologist at a salary of $2,000 a year, with an appropriation of $1,200 for fitting up a chemical laboratory. Three thousand five hundred dollars was appropriated for the publication of Harper's report. Concerning this report, Hilgard remarks:

> It need only be said that it is a literary, linguistic, and scientific curiosity, and probably unique in official publications of its kind. It was the labored effort of a sciolist to show erudition, and to compass the impossible feat of interpreting and discussing intelligently a considerable mass of observations, mostly recorded by another, working on a totally different plan from himself.

The report contained a colored geological map of the State which, though less detailed, corresponded in a general way with that published later (1860) by Hilgard. Indeed, there is every reason for supposing that the map itself was compiled largely from Hilgard's notes. The work, like its predecessor, had little influence upon geological thought, and was, if not ignored, unfavorably reviewed by the journals of the day. The circulation of this report throughout the State brought discredit upon its author to such an extent that, toward the end of the year (1857), he was obliged to resign his office.[a]

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[a] This Geological Report on Mississippi is very unequal in its different parts and requires a careful revision before it can become good authority. Many of the sections have a fantastic boxing off of layers which is quite unintelligible to us. Certain rocks are pronounced to be Carboniferous, because the genus *productus* occurring in them is not known to exist, the author says, in older strata. Some peculiar concentric aggregations in clay are attributed to whirlpools in the waters. The work argues against the subdivisions of the Eocene proposed by Conrad on very insufficient data and an evident want of appreciation of the subject. There are errors, also, in the identification of the Cretaceous, Tertiary, and post-Tertiary beds which betray insufficient observations and an imperfect acquaintance with the science. (Am. Jour. Sci.)

Under an act of the Wisconsin legislature, approved March 25, 1853, Edward Daniels was appointed State geologist, but at the end of the year was superseded by Dr. J. G. Percival, whose work in Connecticut has been already referred to (p. 329). Daniels's first and only annual report, bearing date of 1854, consisted of a small octavo pamphlet of 82 pages, devoted largely to a consideration of the lead fields. One geological section in black and white was given, extending across the lead mines from the Mississippi River opposite Dubuque to the Blue Mounds. The rocks were classified, beginning with the uppermost, as (1) coralline beds, (2) gray limestone, (3) blue limestone, (4) buff limestone, (5) sandstone, (6) lower magnesian limestone, and (7) the sandstone of the Wisconsin River. A vertical section was also given showing the succession and relative thickness of the rocks underlying the lead regions. In this last the gray limestone was given as the prevailing "surface rock of the mines, containing veins of lead, and, in its lower beds, zinc and copper."

Daniels's Work in Wisconsin, 1854.

Daniels found evidence, as he thought, to strengthen the conjecture of Owen to the effect that the Lower Magnesian limestone would be found to contain lead ore in workable quantities.

Aside from the above-noted publication, Daniels was the author of an article on the Iron Ores of Wisconsin, in the report of the geological survey of Wisconsin for 1857 (62 pages), and a brief note regarding the lead district of Wisconsin, which appeared in the Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History in 1854.

According to Hall, Daniels in 1855 first pointed out the unconformity of the western coal measures with the older rocks, though J. W. Foster in 1856 published a section showing a similar unconformity, the discovery of which he credited to Norwood.

Doctor Percival, who succeeded Daniels, received his appointment in August, 1854, and served until the time of his death, which occurred on May 2, 1856. Two reports, in the form of octavo pamphlets of about 100 pages each, were issued as the result of his work. Like his previous work in Connecticut, these reports are extremely prosy and made up largely of very minute descriptions of the lithological nature of the various rock formations of the State, their geographic distribution and relative position. Fossils were mentioned only occasionally, and, otherwise than his reference to them as primary and secondary rocks, there is no suggestion as to their probable geological age, with the exception of the reference in the second report to the fact that the so-called "Mound limestone" had been regarded from its fossils as equivalent to the Niagara limestone. The character of the ore deposits, and the position, number, and character of the veins were noted with great detail,

Percival's Geological Survey of Wisconsin, 1854.

and in a single instance he indulged in a little speculation regarding the origin of the ore:

> The appearances seem no less to indicate the origin of the mineral and the accompanying ores from beneath, probably from the primary rocks underlying the lowest secondary; and that they rose in such a condition that they were diffused through a certain definite extent of the materials of the rocks, and then segregated in their present form, and this along certain lines which have determined their arrangement.

April 8, 1854, D. D. Owen was appointed State geologist of Kentucky, a position which he continued to fill until the time of his death in 1860. During this time there were issued four large octavo reports, comprising, all told, upward of 2,000 pages, with sections, maps, and plates of fossils. Owen was assisted at first by Dr. Robert Peter, chemist, and Sidney T. Lyon, topographer; later, Leo Lesquereux, paleobotanist, E. T. Cox, geologist, and Joseph Lesley, topographer, were added to the force.

Owen's Geological Survey of Kentucky, 1854–1860.

Owen divided the formations of the State as follows, beginning with the uppermost: (1) Superficial deposits, (2) the Coal Measures, (3) sub-Carboniferous limestone, (4) Black lingula shales, (5) Gray coraline falls limestone, (6) the Chain coral and Upper Cliff limestone, and (7) the Blue, Shell, and Bird's-eye limestone, the last named being the most ancient of any yet found within the State limits.

As with a majority of Owen's works, these reports are given up largely to economic matters, to descriptions of the coal, iron ores, building stones, and other useful minerals.

A local epidemic of milk sickness in cattle was examined into in considerable detail by Owen, who concluded that the disease was "intimately connected with the geological formation," and probably due to the presence of soluble salts of aluminum, iron, and magnesia, produced in the shales by the decomposition of iron pyrites. He showed an amusing tendency to magnify the importance of minor matters in suggesting that the animals at pasture may have become weakened and peculiarly susceptible to disease through breathing, while feeding with the nostrils close to the ground, an atmosphere deficient in oxygen, the abstraction of this element being due to the oxidation of the pyrite in the surface rock.

Concerning the roe or oolitic structure of the sub-Carboniferous limestone, he wrote, the structure "seems to have been formed in eddies where the water circled round in spiral or funnel-shaped currents which kept particles of fine sand revolving in such a manner that they acquired concentric calcareous coatings, until, having attained the size of fish roe, their gravity was sufficient to overcome the power of suspension of the rotary currents, when they sunk to the bottom." In consideration of the fact that this oolitic structure is now known

to prevail over many hundred square miles of area, this explanation seems scarcely sufficient.

Peter's work on the chemical composition of the soil was very thorough, and, taken all in all, the work done by this survey on problems relating to the soil was of greater importance than any previously produced. The method followed by Doctor Peter himself has, however, been proven by recent work to be of comparatively little value, the fertility of a soil, as announced years earlier by Emmons, being dependent more upon its physical than chemical properties.

G. G. Shumard's Work in Connection with Pope's Expedition, 1855.

In 1855 G. G. Shumard accompanied, in the capacity of geologist, the expedition under command of Captain Pope for the purpose of boring artesian wells upon the western plains along the line of the thirty-second parallel. An abstract of his report was given in the Transactions of the St. Louis Academy of Sciences, I, 1856–1860, though, so far as can be ascertained, no final report ever appeared.

Shumard announced the finding of Permian fossils about 30 miles above the mouth of Delaware Creek, in the country lying between the Rio Pecos and the Rio Grande. At Delaware Creek the oldest rocks were Cretaceous, overlaid by Quaternary. The Guadalupe Mountains he described as consisting of white, gray, and bluish-black limestone, containing fossils, some of which appeared to belong to the Coal Measures and others to the Permian, the beds being finally set down as of Permian age. The Sierra Alto was shown to have a granitic nucleus, from which the stratified rocks dip away on either side.

FIG. 57.—Oscar Montgomery Lieber.

Silurian rocks were found in the El Paso Mountains, and the Jornada del Muerto was shown to be a small trough composed mostly of limestone, sandstone, and shales, covered to a depth of 5 or 6 feet with loose detritus. The upheaved edges of these underlying strata formed the mountains on either side. The Organ Mountains were shown to be of limestone, belonging to the Coal Measures.

Lieber's Work in South Carolina, 1855-1860.

By an act of the legislature of the State of South Carolina in 1855 Oscar M. Lieber was appointed director of the geological, mineralogical, and agricultural survey of the State, a position which he held up to 1860. During this period he made four annual reports, the first bearing date of 1857 and the last 1860. This, it will be remembered, was the third survey of the State undertaken at public expense, the first being purely agricultural, under the direction of Edmund Ruffin, and the second geological and agricultural, under direction of M. Tuomey.

In the reports of Lieber matters of both theoretic and economic nature received attention, though an undue amount of space was perhaps devoted to a discussion of the itacolumite, which he considered to be a true sandstone. He differed in this respect with Mr. Tuomey. Its flexibility he regarded as not due to decomposition, but rather to its fineness of grain and admixture of mica or talc, delicately laminated structure, and a certain degree of compactness in the constituents of each lamina. In this he was mistaken. He discussed the origin of the rock, and compared it with the itacolumite of Brazil in its relation to the diamond.

A peculiar tendency on the part of Lieber to use outlandish terms, particularly Brazilian Portuguese, is manifested in this report. Thus, in his paper on the itacolumite and its associated rocks, he mentions finding the "*tapanhouncanga*, or *canga*, which sometimes passed into a reddish quader-sandstone." He also wrote of the "*oryctognostic*" composition of the rock, and designated a prospector as a "*costeaner*."

He classified the igneous rocks of the State, commencing with the newest, as:

Trachytic rocks:
- Eurite and quartz porphyry (?).
- Coarse trachyte of eastern Lancaster.
- Domite, phonolith.

Trappean rocks: Diorite and Diorite slate, soapstone (?), Talcose trap (?).

Granites:
- Melaphyre, Egeran (?).
- Aphanitic porphyry.
- Coarse-grained granite, etc., of Taxahaw (syenite).
- Other granite and gneiss.

(The marks of interrogation with some of these denote that their exact relative position is not established.)

Lieber's views regarding mineral veins and ore deposits were largely influenced by those of European authorities, but, nevertheless, he entertained certain independent ideas which at this date are instructive. He believed with Werner that the veins were filled crevices, but thought them to have been filled from below rather than from above; that is, the minerals constituting the veins he regarded as having been derived from the interior of the planet and brought to the surface by mineral waters or steam, where they were deposited chiefly in the crevices themselves, the surplus only distributing itself among the surface waters, whence it was afterward precipitated.

He argued against the idea that the veins had been filled by the leaching action of water permeating the rocks on either side, saying:

> Entirely the reverse is, however, the case. Thus, minerals which belong to the veins but which are found in the country were in reality derived from the former; the vein crevices were the first reservoirs, and the few scattering particles of the minerals of the veins which we find in the adjacent country rocks found their way into the latter by elimination or secretion and by sublimation from the surcharged vein crevices.

Concerning the variation in vein structure and the changes of the contents of veins at various depths, he wrote:

> Except in those few cases where the enrichment of a vein is due to extraneous or superficial causes, we may safely say that veins gain in the quantity of their metalliferous contents as we leave the surface; that is to say, the lodes increase in diameter and in the compactness of their ores.

Thus do we find one who was the best authority in the State promulgating a theory wholly erroneous and misleading.

The question of the origin of gold received consideration, and the opinion was expressed that "the gold in some igneous rocks with us and elsewhere may have been brought up with the fluid masses from beneath, but it may also have been imparted by the solution of auriferous sedimentary rocks traversed at the period of injection." While noting that dikes exerted a conspicuous influence on the discernible presence of gold, he believed that these did not impart the metal, or if they did, only in exceptional cases, and that as a rule certain sedimentary rocks must be regarded as the true source of the gold into which it was infused at the time of their deposition, though by what means or from what source he found it impossible even to guess.

Each of the reports was accompanied by two or more colored geognostic maps, in which the various formations were grouped according to their lithological nature rather than according to their geological age.

In 1855 there appeared Dawson's Acadian Geology, a small octavo volume of but 388 pages, but which, through successive editions, grew, by 1878, to nearly 800 pages. This in all its editions was by far the most important production of this most prolific writer.[a]

Dawson's Acadian Geology, 1855.

The edition of 1855 contained a colored geological map of the region and purported to give in a condensed form what was known of the more general features of the peninsula. A discussion of the views held, and as subsequently modified, can well be reserved until we come to the edition of 1878.

A very large proportion of Dawson's geological papers related to the Coal Measures of Nova Scotia and their included plant and animal remains. His first publications on these subjects date back to 1843.

Dawson's work in Nova Scotia, 1853-1865.

As early as 1853 he announced, in connection with Lyell, the finding, at the base of an upright fossil tree trunk in these Coal Measures, of bones identified by Jeffries Wyman and Richard Owen as those of a reptile or batrachian, to which the name *Dendrerpeton acadianum* was applied. The finding of the shell of a terrestrial mollusk was also announced at the same time.

Dawson also made important observations regarding the origin of the various coal beds. He felt that the conditions indicated the existence at one time of a long succession of oscillations between terrestrial and

[a] Dawson's bibliography contains upward of 360 titles, of which at least nine were books.

aquatic circumstances, which were not accompanied by any material permanent change in the nature of the surface of the land and its organized inhabitants. He conceived that the elevation and depression of large areas were not absolutely contemporaneous, but such that by a mere change of place one could have passed from a coal swamp to a modiola lagoon or a tidal sand flat.

In the Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society for 1859 Dawson had another important paper on the vegetable structures in the coal in which he announced that the vegetable matter of these beds consists principally of Sigillariæ and Calamiteæ. With these, however, he found intermixed remains of many other plants.

The structure of the coal as he here found it conformed to the view that the materials were accumulated by growth in place without any driftage of materials. The rate of accumulation he thought to have been very slow, the climate of the period being such that the true conifers grew not more rapidly than their modern congeners. Making all due allowances, he felt safe in asserting that every foot of thickness of pure bituminous coal implied the growth and fall of at least fifty generations of Sigillariæ and, therefore, an undisturbed condition of forest growth enduring through many centuries.

In this same journal for 1865, under the title of On the Conditions of the Deposition of Coal, he again referred to the subject. Writing with reference only to the beds of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick and their associated sediments, he showed that the coarser matter of the Carboniferous rocks was derived from the neighboring metamorphic ridges, but much of the finer material was probably drifted from more distant sources. He thought there was no good reason to doubt that in the Carboniferous period the greater part of the Laurentian and Silurian districts of North America existed as land. Considering the relative position and lithological nature of the beds of the Carboniferous period, and comparing them with those of other periods of the Paleozoic age in eastern America, he thought to find indications of the existence of periodic cycles such that similar beds were deposited at corresponding periods in each, the parallelism being tabulated as below:

(The several formations are arranged in descending order.)

Character of group.	Lower Silurian.	Upper Silurian.	Devonian.	Carboniferous.
Shallow, subsiding marine area, filling up with sediment.	Hudson River group.	Lower Helderberg group.	Chemung group..	Upper coal formation.
Elevation, followed by slow subsidence, land, surfaces, etc.	Utica shale	Salina group ...	Hamilton group..	Coal Measures.
Marine conditions; formation of limestones, etc.	Trenton, Black River, and Chazy limestones.	Niagara and Clinton limestones.	Corniferous limestone.	Lower Carboniferous limestone.
Subsidence; disturbances; deposition of coarse sediment.	Potsdam and Calciferous sandstones.	Oneida and Medina sandstones.	Oriskany sandstone.	Lower Coal Measures and conglomerate.

In an article communicated to the Natural History Society of Montreal in 1860, Dawson claimed to recognize "among the partially metamorphosed sub-Carboniferous rocks of Nova Scotia, formations ranging from the Middle Silurian to the Lower Devonian, inclusive, but of a more argillaceous and less calcareous character than the series occupying this position in the mainland of America." The granites (intrusives) he regarded as of newer Devonian age, and the Arisaig series as representing "the upper part of the Middle Silurian, probably with a part of the Upper Silurian, a position much lower than that assigned to it in my Acadian Geology."

Jules Marcou's Geological Map of the United States, 1853.

In 1853 Jules Marcou, a Frenchman who had come to America in 1848, published a geological map of the United States and the British Provinces of North America, with 92 octavo pages of explanatory text, two geological sections, and eight plates of the fossils which characterize the formations. The map, which was colored by hand, extended as far west as the one hundred and sixth meridian, and the geological sections, not colored, extended, the first from the Atlantic Ocean at Yorktown, Virginia, to Fort Laramie, Nebraska, and the second from Lake St. Johns in the Hudson Bay Territory to Mobile, Alabama.

FIG. 58.—Jules Marcou.

The author adopted the formation names established by M. de Verneuil and Murchison, in order to render possible a satisfactory comparison with the existing geological maps of England, Germany, Russia, Scandinavia, and Bohemia. The divisions Cambrian and Taconic, however, were not recognized, since, in the opinion of the compiler, they "ought to disappear from geological classification, for they give two names to the metamorphic rocks, of which they are integrant parts, in all regions where these beds have been observed."[a]

Perhaps the most striking feature of the map, at least that in which it differs the most from those of later date, lay in the enormous development of the Devonian, which is made to occupy a large portion of southern New York, as now, and to extend thence in a continuous, broad, but gradually narrowing band southwesterly to near Tuscaloosa, in Alabama. A continuous belt was also indicated as extending from the east side of the south end of Lake Michigan westerly nearly to the Missouri River. The brown Triassic sandstones of the Eastern States were colored as Keuper (yellow), and the belt west of Rich-

[a] This statement regarding the Taconic is a little surprising when one considers the part Marcou played in the subsequent controversy (see p. 659).

mond and one near Raton Mountains, in New Mexico, as Lias or Jurassic (blue). A band of Keuper was also represented as extending from the eastern end of the south shore of Lake Superior quite across the Coteau des Prairies to the ninety-eighth meridian. A continuous band, colored as composed of granite porphyry, syenite, greenstone, gneiss, mica-schist, etc., was represented as extending from below the twenty-fourth parallel in Mexico northward to the great bend of the North Platte in Wyoming, where it was overlain by Silurian, Devonian, Coal Measures, and Keuper strata, the latter flanked on the north by a broad band of "copper trap." Here again the series extended westerly to the edge of the map and northeasterly to a point about midway between Mandan and the Little Missouri River in Dakota.

This attempt on the part of Marcou was certainly commendable, requiring courage as well as judgment. Unfortunately, Marcou does not seem to have used discretion in all cases in the selection of his authorities, and made altogether too sweeping generalizations, often in direct contradiction of facts made known by other workers.

In 1855, 1858, and again in 1872 Marcou published in Germany and France other editions of his map, in which he comprised the whole country from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. Perhaps the most striking feature of these issues is the enormous area of country west of the Missouri at Iowa and extending almost to Great Salt Lake and the Colorado River in Arizona, colored as red sandstone (Trias), with broad intercallations of Jurassic. This feature is the same on issues of both 1855 and 1858, although in the map of 1853 he colored the same area (at least as far as this map extended) Cretaceous, Tertiary, and Quaternary. In the edition of 1855 the entire west coast of California south of Humboldt and as far down as Monterey was colored as occupied by eruptive and metamorphic rocks, while broad belts in the interior, along the courses of the main rivers, were colored as Tertiary. In the edition of 1858 this was in part corrected, the Tertiary being extended to the coast.

The various editions of these maps, on account of the errors mentioned and numerous others perhaps even more inexcusable, though less conspicuous, were severely criticised by American geologists, a particularly harsh review of the 1853 map being given by James Hall in the American Journal of Science for March, 1854, and of that of 1855 by W. P. Blake in the same journal for November, 1856.

The Pacific Railroad Surveys, 1853–1856.

During 1853 numerous expeditions were sent out by the War Department for the purpose of exploring routes for the proposed railroad from the Mississippi Valley to the Pacific coast. These were in all cases under the immediate command of officers of the Army, but to nearly all one or more naturalists or geologists were attached.

The published results of these explorations, geological and otherwise, form the thirteen quarto volumes of Pacific Railroad Reports, so well known to all naturalists. Among those who accompanied the expeditions and whose reports gave almost the first authoritative and systematic accounts of the geology of the regions passed over were Jules Marcou, whose geological map has been mentioned; W. P. Blake, of New Haven, Connecticut; Thomas Antisell, James Schiel, and J. S. Newberry.

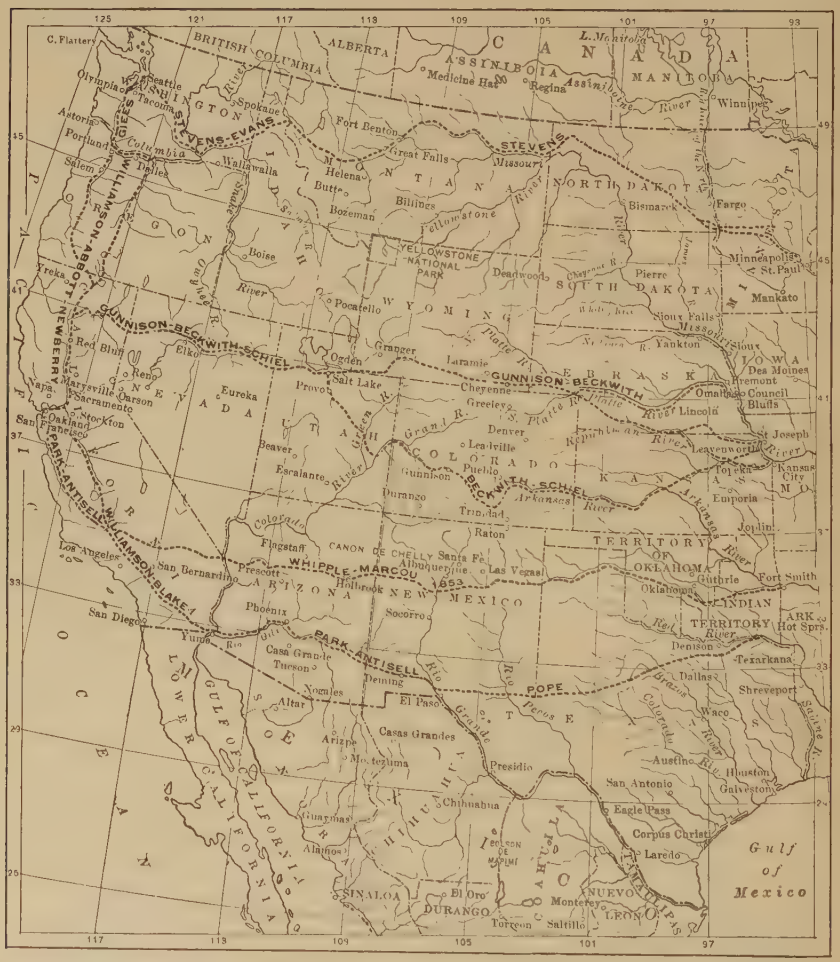

FIG. 59.—Map showing principal routes of exploring parties in connection with Pacific Railroad surveys.

Marcou received his appointment in May, 1853, with orders to join Lieut. A. W. Whipple in the exploration of a route near the thirty-fifth parallel of latitude. The route followed lay by way of Fort Smith, Arkansas; westward through Albuquerque and Santa Fe, New Mexico, to Los Angeles, California, and occupied the period between

June 2, 1853, and March 26, 1854. On returning to Washington, June 1, 1854, Marcou, on the plea of ill health, asked permission to work up his results in Europe; and, acting apparently under a misunderstanding, proceeded to pack his own collections, together with others made by the party under Captain Pope along the thirty-second parallel, and made preparations to leave the country on September 27. This procedure seems, however, to have displeased the then Secretary of War (Jefferson Davis), who insisted, under date of September 25, that the report be made out in this country. It being then too late, as claimed, for Mr. Marcou to change his plans, he was allowed to depart, but instructed under threat of prosecution to turn over all collections and notebooks, the property of the Government, to the accredited representative of the United States at Paris. Naturally this treatment aroused considerable indignation on the part of Marcou, though it is doubtful if he was justified in his subsequent proceedings. Such of the collections and notes as were returned were placed in the hands of W. P. Blake to be worked up, but, while there is no reason for criticising the latter, the report was not all that could have been desired.[a] It is a painful fact, moreover, that none of Marcou's types were returned to America, but were, by him, distributed to English and continental museums, one of the collections being now in the possession of the Geological Society of London.

Marcou's work in Connection with the Pacific Railroad Surveys, 1853.

Before leaving for Europe, however, and before becoming aware of the intentions of the Secretary of War, Marcou made two brief reports or summaries—one of the route traversed by himself, and the other on the materials collected by Captain Pope's party. These were published in House Document No. 129 and were republished, together with other papers by the same author, in Zurich in 1858, under the title of Geology of North America, with Two Reports on the Prairies of Arkansas and Texas, the Rocky Mountains of New Mexico and the Sierra Nevada of California. The latter work was accompanied by a geological map of the United States and a section across the country from Fort Smith to the Pacific Ocean, the same being a reprint of a map published by him in 1855 in the Bulletin of the Geological Society of France and in the Annales des Mines for the same year. (Referred to on p. 449.) It also contained a colored map of an area from 35 to 75 miles in width across New Mexico along the thirty-fifth parallel, bearing date of 1857, and a reproduction of Maclure's map, the original of which bore date of 1809.

In this summary Marcou identified certain horizontal beds overlying the Carboniferous limestones as Triassic, a formation which on the

[a] Marcou's original notes and Blake's translation of the same were published in parallel columns in the third volume of the Pacific Railroad Reports.

basis of his geological map of the United States, published in Boston in 1853, above noted, he claimed to have been the first to recognize in the West. He divided it into three divisions, the lowest of which he considered as equivalent to the red sandstones of Lake Superior (now considered as Cambrian), the Bay of Fundy, the Prince Edward and Magdalen islands, and a part of that of Virginia and New Jersey. At Pyramid Mount, in the Llano Estacado, he claimed to have found Jurassic rocks overlying conformably the Keuper (the first discovery of rocks of this horizon in America), and at Galisteo, in New Mexico, the White Chalk division of the Cretaceous. From the fact that the Cretaceous beds lie unconformably upon the upheaved Triassic and Jurassic beds, he concluded that the same were deposited after the principal dislocation of the Rocky Mountains, which took place at the end of the Jurassic period.

The Sierra Nevada he rightly inferred to be of more recent uplift than the Rocky Mountains, probably dating from the end of the Miocene or Pliocene, and the Coast Range from the end of the Eocene.

Fig. 60.—William Phipps Blake.

Work of W. P. Blake in Connection with the Pacific Railroad Surveys, 1853-1856.

To W. P. Blake fell the lot of accompanying Lieutenant Williamson, whose route led from San Francisco southward along the San Joaquin River, through San Francisco Pass in the mountains to the Mohave River, and eastward along the thirty-second and thirty-third parallels to the mouth of the Gila. The region, as pointed out by S. F. Emmons,[a] "is not one from which definite geological data could be obtained," the rocks, with the exception of recent and Tertiary formations, being barren and classed as metamorphic and eruptive. He however noted the wide-spread occurrence of Tertiary rocks about San Francisco and in southern California and the occurrence of eruptive serpentinous rocks. He also made many interesting minor observations on the polishing and grooving of hard rocks by wind-blown sand and other desert phenomena. Mountains of the isolated or "lost mountain" type were described, and the fact that the Colorado Desert was below the level of the sea noted. The age of the coast mountains was determined as at least post-Pliocene, and the impregnation of the rocks of the region with gold he regarded as having been contemporaneous with the uplift.

[a] Presidential address, Geological Society of Washington, 1896.

To Blake, too, fell the study of the collections made by Pope's expedition along the route near the thirty-second parallel. It was the original intention of Pope that this work should be done by Marcou, but owing to the decision of Davis, then Secretary of War, the collections were returned by Marcou, as already noted, "in a confused condition and with many of the labels displaced" and given to Blake.

Captain Pope's route extended from Preston on the Red River in a southwesterly direction to the Pecos River, and thence nearly due west to the valley of the Rio Grande at El Paso and Dona Ana in New Mexico, crossing the Organ, Huerco, and Guadalupe mountains. The result of this expedition was to establish the Carboniferous character of the limestone of the Organ Mountains, the prevailing granitic type of the Huerco Range, and the presumable Carboniferous age of the limestone and sandstone of the Guadalupes (see also Shumard's observations, p. 434). The underlying formations of the Llano Estacado were judged from the specimens to be probably Cretaceous and not Jurassic, as mapped by Marcou. For the geology of the region between Llano Estacado and Preston, Blake drew largely on Shumard's publications.

The origin of the gypsum beds he regarded as due to the action on the underlying limestone of percolating waters containing sulphuric acid derived from the decomposition of pyrites.

The Work of Antisell.

Thomas Antisell accompanied the party under command of Lieut. J. G. Parke, surveying the route in southern California to connect with the routes near the thirty-fifth and thirty-second parallels and also the route near the thirty-second parallel between the Rio Grande and Pimas Village, which was explored by Parker in 1854–55.

Antisell recognized the post-Miocene age of the final uplift of the Coast Range and thought that the elevating force must have taken place from two points, one in the north and one in the south, and that the forces became gradually spent as they passed, one in a southerly and the other in a northerly direction toward each other. He conceived that this resulted in an uplifting of the consolidated crust of the State at either end, while the center remained quiescent, causing thereby a rupture of the superficial strata, or even a depression below sea level near the middle, forming thus San Francisco Bay.

Influenced to some extent by Elie de Beaumont's theory of mountain uplift and the relative age of mountain ranges, as indicated by their parallelism, he, without committing himself in any way, called attention to the north and south trend of all the New Mexican ranges and northwest and southeast trend of the Sierras, the Coast Range, and the ranges of Nevada.

No Paleozoic rocks were recognized in the southern part of the State. The sandstone underlying the Carboniferous limestone of the

Gila region, New Mexico, was thought to be Devonian, though no fossils were found by which the age might be definitely proven. What fossils were collected during this expedition were described by Conrad and were all Tertiary forms.

As with Hitchcock and other of the early workers, he failed to realize the full capabilities of river action during gradual crustal movement, and found the same difficulty in accounting for the course of the Gila that Hitchcock did with that of the Connecticut (p. 310).

> During the series of elevations [he wrote] which finally uplifted this range (the Pinaleno) to its present altitude, the upheaving force must have been exerted even upon the southern portion of the range, raising the table-land of northern Sonora and Chiricahua to so great a height. This strain may have produced a fissure from east to west, or cracked and perhaps depressed the strata along parallel 33°, and thus enabled the Gila to take that as a permanent course. Some such catastrophe must have occurred, for it is scarcely probable that the river unaided could have cut through such lofty hills and hard rocks as it appears to have done in its passage through these mountains, running as it does at right angles to the strike of the ranges.

Antisell's report was accompanied by numerous sections in black and white through the coast ranges, and a colored geological map of the region extending from San Francisco to Los Angeles; also by a colored map and section of the region from the Rio Grande (then known as the Rio Bravo del Norte) to beyond Maricopa Wells (112° 30′).

Fig. 61.—Thomas Antisell.

Sketch of Antisell.

Antisell was born in Ireland, of French Huguenot parentage, in 1817, and came to America for political reasons in 1848, where he practiced medicine until 1854, though in the meantime holding the position of lecturer on chemistry in a number of colleges, including those of Woodstock, Vermont; Pittsfield, Massachusetts; and at the Berkshire Medical Institute. Prior to his American experiences, though by profession a surgeon, he had manifested a lively interest in matters pertaining to other sciences, and had published in 1846 a duodecimo volume of 84 pages on Irish geology and a manual of agricultural chemistry, prepared with especial reference to the soils of Ireland. His work with the Pacific Railroad Survey, above noted, comprised his only geological investigations after coming to America.

In 1856 he was appointed an examiner in the Patent Office, but resigned to enter the Union Army as surgeon in 1861. In 1866 he became chief chemist of the Department of Agriculture, and in 1871 was appointed by the Japanese Government an expert in chemical

technology in Tokyo. He returned to the United States in 1877 and was reappointed to his former position in the Patent Office, where he remained until 1891.

J. S. Newberry was geologist to the party under Lieutenants Williamson and Abbot, surveying routes in California and Oregon. Newberry regarded the sandstone in the vicinity of San Francisco as probably Miocene, and the serpentines as of igneous origin—in this agreeing with Blake. The rocks at Arbuckle's diggings, near Fort Reading, were considered as Cretaceous. He did not agree with Trask in thinking that the Sierra Nevada terminated at Lassen's Butte, or that the Coast Mountains, when continued northward, form the Cascades of Oregon and Washington. He regarded Mount Shasta as a part of the Sierra Nevadas (as did also King, later), which were themselves probably of greater antiquity than the Coast Range Mountains. In this he was right. He thought to have discovered evidences of a continuous ice sheet in the region of the Three Sisters and Mount Jefferson in the Cascades. The canyons, as of the Columbia, he rightly regarded as due to stream erosion, not to rifts by volcanic action. The few fossils collected were described by Conrad and all as Miocene.

Newberry's Pacific Railroad Work, 1856.

The survey along the thirty-eighth and forty-first parallels was first placed under the direction of Captain Gunnison, who, however, lost his life in a fight with the Indians in Sevier Lake Valley in 1853. Lieut. E. H. Beckwith was then placed in charge, with Dr. James Schiel as geologist. The route lay across Kansas, up the Arkansas River, and across the front range to the valleys of the Grand and Green rivers, south of Salt Lake; thence across the Humboldt Desert and Sierra Nevadas to the Pitt and Sacramento rivers in California. The report contains scarcely anything of value from a geological standpoint, being mainly mineralogical and lithological, though a few invertebrate fossils are described and one fossil fish, the first named being mainly specimens of *Productus*, *Terebratula*, *Inoceramus*, and *Gryphea*. Nothing was said regarding their probable geological age.

Schiel's Work.

Dr. John Evans, whose early work in the Bad Lands is noted elsewhere, made to Governor I. I. Stevens reports on the geology of the northern route, which were, however, never printed.

According to Emmons,[a] two reports were made, but both were lost in transit from the Pacific Coast to Washington. No final report was published, though correspondence shows that such was prepared and sent to the Government Printing Office as early as 1861. Doctor Evans dying in 1861, all trace of the manuscript appears to have been lost.

Dr. John Evans's Work in Washington and Oregon Territories.

[a] Presidential Address, Geological Society of Washington, 1896.

George Gibbs accompanied a party under the command of Capt. George B. McClellan and made reports on the country lying on Shoalwater Bay and Puget Sound, and also in the central part of what was then the Territory of Washington. His published notes contained little of geological interest. Gibbs, it should be stated, while active in scientific matters, did little work along the broad lines of geology. His bibliography consists, in addition to the above, of three brief notes, altogether comprising less than a printed page. He thought to have discovered that the paving blocks—pebbles—on Waverly Place in New York City had through the weight of traffic yielded as if plastic, so that the concavity of one fitted into a corresponding convexity in its neighbor. He also called attention to the "glades" in Oakland, Allegany County, Maryland, which he believed to have been the seats of ancient glaciers.

George Gibbs's Work in Washington.

FIG. 62.—George Gibbs.

In this connection mention should be made of the survey by Swallow of that portion of the line built under State auspices and extending from St. Louis westward to the State line and known as the Southwest Branch. The report of this survey comprised, all told, less than one hundred pages, and is of interest mainly for the colored geological map of the region traversed. It dealt, naturally, mainly with economic questions, as the distribution of the ores of lead, zinc, and copper and the character of the soil.

Swallow's Survey of the Southwest Branch of the Pacific Railroad in Missouri, 1859.

In 1854 the general assembly of Tennessee passed an act creating for a second time the office of geologist and mineralogist of the State. J. M. Safford, then holding the chair of chemistry, geology, and natural history in the Cumberland University at Lebanon, Tennessee, was appointed to the position, continuing to serve until the outbreak of the civil war, when the work was abandoned. During this time he published two biennial reports, the first in 1856 comprising 164 pages, and the second in 1857 comprising but 11 pages. A final volume on the geology of Tennessee, comprising 550 pages with 7 plates of fossils, appeared in 1869 (see p. 534).

Safford's Work in Tennessee, 1854.

FIG. 63.—James Merrill Safford.

The first report, known under the title of Geological Reconnaissance of Tennessee, was presented to the general assembly in 1855, and published in 1856. It was given up largely to a somewhat popular treatise on the economic geology of the State, with much interesting stratigraphical matter.

He discussed the occurrence of the ores of iron, copper, lead, zinc, and even gold and silver, and included also a brief chapter on Aluminum or the Metal from Clay. "Stone coal" and the marbles received a share of attention, as well as various minor minerals. From a strictly geological standpoint the matter given in chapters 5 and 6—the closing chapters of the report—was of greatest importance. Here he dwelt on the general geological structure of the State and gave the now well-known Cumberland section, reproduced with the original legend in fig. 64, and also an ideal cross section illustrating the geological structure of East Tennessee. He pointed out the striking parallelism of the valleys and ridges and the occasional vertical position of the beds, as well as the frequent repetition of the same series of beds, due to folding and faulting.

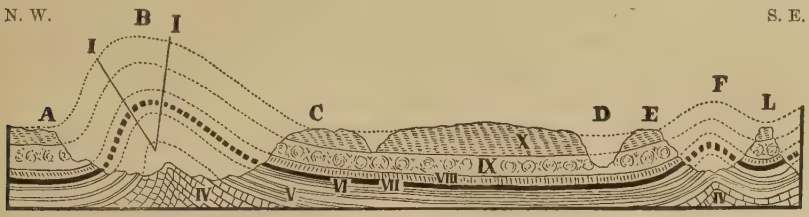

FIG. 64.—Section from the Cumberland, 8 miles north of Jasper, to the Eastern base of Lookout Mountain. (After James M. Safford.)

(Length of section, 20 miles; vertical scale, about five thousand feet to the inch.)

A and C, High edges, respectively, of the Cumberland and Walden's ridge, overlooking Sequatchee Valley, represented by the depression between. D, Narrow valley of the Tennessee River; the section crosses a few miles above Kelly's Ferry. E, Portion of the Walden's ridge and Raccoon range cut off by the river, etc. L, Lookout Mountain. Depression between E and L, Valley of Lookout Creek.

The unbroken lines represent the formations as they actually occur. The broken lines indicate the elevation of the folds, and the amount of matter removed by denudation. B, Summit of the restored Sequatchee fold. I, I, Converging lines indicating a section of the supposed fissure or rent. F, Summit of another smaller fold.

He grouped the rocks under fourteen formations, extending from the mica-slate group of metamorphic rocks of Azoic age to the Alluvial, post-Tertiary series. The much discussed and still enigmatical Ocoee conglomerates were included in his semimetamorphic series at the top of the Azoic. Troost, it will be remembered, put them at the base of his Cambrian.

The importance of fossils for purposes of correlation was at this time distinctly recognized.

Every formation has, in great part, its own species of fossils. Most of those found in one do not occur in any other. Upon this fact depends the great utility of fossils. They furnish, when known well enough to be recognized, unmistakable evidence of the geological position, and hence the general character of the formation in which they occur.

This report shows on the part of Safford a thorough insight into the intricacies of the structure of the State and an ability to grasp the salient features and master the broader problems in a manner perhaps not realized by many of his contemporaries and successors.

The second biennial report, which appeared in 1857, gave simply a brief account of the objects and utility of the survey, with a general summary of what had been accomplished.

R. O. Currey's Sketch of the Geology of Tennessee, 1857.

In this connection Richard O. Currey's Sketch of the Geology of the same State may be mentioned briefly. Currey had been a pupil of Troost and later a professor of chemistry and geology in East Tennessee University. His geological writings are few and limited mainly to such papers as the Southern Journal of Medical and Physical Sciences, the Nashville Banner, and The Virginias. The sketches above referred to were first published in 1853 in the Nashville Banner, and subsequently brought out, under the title quoted, in form of a booklet of 128 pages, accompanied by a reprint of Safford's map in black and white.

Emmons's American Geology, 1854.

In 1854 Dr. Ebenezer Emmons began the publication of a work on American Geology, the intention being, as announced in the "proposals," to bring it out in four or five parts, each of which should contain about 200 pages of matter. The first part, containing 194 pages, was issued at Albany in 1854. It was given up mainly to a discussion of the general principles of geology, of the rocks composing the earth's crust, and some 70 pages devoted to An Application of Geological Facts and Principles to the Business of Mining. Part II—the last that was ever issued—comprised 250 pages and 18 plates, and was given up to an exposition of the author's views on the Taconic and Lower Silurian systems as developed in America and England.

This work, as outlined, was by far the most pretentious of its kind that had thus far appeared in America, antedating Dana's Manual by some ten years, and having for its predecessors only the American reprints of Bakewell's Introduction, Buckland's Bridgewater Treatise, and De La Beche's Manual, besides the smaller text-books of Eaton and Emmons, published in the twenties, and which have been previously noted. There was, therefore, ample room for a work of this nature, but it is doubtful if the occasion was propitious or Emmons the man for the task. Too much of the work (122 pages) was given up to a defense of the author's own peculiar views, which were not in all cases the best, or most generally accepted. His style was poor, often lacking in perspicuity, and in many ways he laid himself open to savage onslaughts of criticism.[a] Unjust as much of this criticism may have been, Emmons, it must be confessed, showed singular ignorance

[a] See Hall's review (unsigned) in the American Journal of Science, XIX, May, 1855.

of, or indifference toward, much of the work that had been done in the West and Northwest, and his ideas regarding the early history of the globe were not the most advanced. Heat was regarded as at first the predominant and active element. As the activity of fire diminished, that of the antagonistic element, water, increased. The first was paroxysmal in its action, the latter constant. In America he found the evidences of aqueous agencies on a grand scale, but "volcanic fire" seemed so far a thing of the past that it was "impossible to obtain specimens even for laboratory illustration."

Fire or heat, he wrote, acts in four ways: (1) In the elevation of areas by expansive forces beneath the crust; (2) by the transferrence of fused matter from the interior to the surface; (3) by producing areas of subsidence, caused by this loss of matter from beneath; and (4) the elevation or depression of areas simply through expansion and contraction of strata by heat and cold. The internal heat he regarded as effective in sustaining "that degree of temperature which is best fitted to the organic and structural conditions of living beings" on the earth.

The classification adopted was essentially the same as that put out in his North Carolina report (p. 431) and need not be repeated here.

The pyrocrystalline rocks, it may be stated, however, he regarded as the results of the primary consolidation of the earth's crust. The fact that some of these occurred in dikes he thought to be due to the fissuring of the earlier-cooled portions of the crust by shrinkage and the forcing up through these fissures of the lower, still unconsolidated portion. He imagined that the age of rocks might be deduced from their crystalline state, the older having been subjected to greater heat and hence becoming most perfectly fused and most highly crystalline on cooling. The granites were, therefore, regarded as the first products of cooling and the oldest of rocks.

Emmons regarded concretions and nodules as symmetrical bodies due to "a force by virtue of which the molecules are really transferred to central points where, by constant accumulation," they form the concretion. The parallel planes of the rhombic forms in limestones and slaty rocks, and jointed structure in general, "admits of the same explanation." The concentric weathering shown by massive rocks was referred to the same cause. Further than this, he regarded the phenomena of rift and grain in a massive rock as identical with cleavage in a simple mineral. Such rocks "are not only composed of crystallized minerals, but they are crystalline in the mass."

The serpentine of Syracuse, New York, he considered a magnesian rock altered by proximity to eruptives, and he still adhered to the idea of the igneous origin of the crystalline limestones of St. Lawrence County, as announced in his New York report. For the first time in an American text-book there was here recognized the relationship

existing between conglomerates and sandstones as shore deposits and the pelagic, calcareous, and argillaceous materials laid down at greater depths.

In 1854 Dr. William Kitchell was appointed superintendent of the geological survey of New Jersey. He continued in office until the close of 1856, during which time he made three annual reports, being assisted in the geological work by George H. Cook and in the topographic by Egbert L. Viele. It was expected that Conrad would take charge of the paleontological work, but failing health forcing him to resign, it was placed in the hands of James Hall. Up to the time of the discontinuance of the survey, however, Hall appears to have done little. The vertebrate fossils collected were placed in the hands of Joseph Leidy. Mr. Henry Wurtz served as chemist and mineralogist.

Kitchell's Geological Survey of New Jersey, 1854–1856.

Such part of the work as was done directly by Kitchell contained little that was original or worthy of note, the stratigraphic work being almost wholly done by Professor Cook. In the first report considerable attention was paid to the greenstone marls, their distribution and chemical composition, although other economic questions were taken up, particularly those relating to the iron ores. The magnetic iron ores were regarded as deposited contemporaneously with the sedimentary rocks in which they were inclosed.

In the third annual report, printed in 1856, Cook called attention to the swamp lands and buried timber, and also the apparent gradual encroachments of the sea in Cape May County, and stated it as his opinion that the sinking of the coast was going on at the rate of about 2 feet in one hundred years. The white crystalline limestone of the highlands was here classed as Azoic.

The results of these observations were afterwards printed with some additional matter in separate form, entitled Geology of the County of Cape May, State of New Jersey, bearing the date of 1857. This report contained a colored geological map of the county and catalogues of the zoological and botanical collections and a few fossil invertebrates.

The survey was brought to a close on the 1st of May, 1856, owing to the fact that the State did not feel able to provide an appropriation for its continuance.[a]

The surveying party under Maj. W. H. Emory, for the purpose of fixing the Mexican boundary in accordance with the treaty of 1854, was accompanied by Dr. C. C. Parry in the capacity of geologist and botanist and Arthur Schott as an assistant. The observations made by these two men were largely physiographical and mineralogical, with numerous notes of a lithological nature. Collections of fossils were fortunately made,

Emory's Mexican Boundary Survey, 1855–1856.

[a] According to Cook (Geology of New Jersey, 1868), Kitchell died suddenly in the midst of his active duties, leaving his notes and papers unarranged for publication.

which were referred to Messrs. Hall and Conrad for determination and report. The published report, the work of all the above mentioned, comprised but 174 pages of text, with 21 plates of fossils. It was, however, noteworthy in containing a colored geological map of the Mississippi Valley and country to the west. This has the distinction of being the earliest colored geological map of the region published by the Government. It is, moreover, of historical interest as showing how little was definitely known of the region. The known mountain ranges were colored as metamorphic, often flanked by more or less sinuous, narrow bands of Cretaceous and Carboniferous rocks. Large areas of igneous rocks were represented as occurring in the extreme northwest (California, Oregon, and Washington), but the great interior, the Great Basin region, was left almost entirely blank—geologically a terra incognita.

The fossils, collected largely from Texas, were almost wholly Tertiary, Cretaceous, and Upper Carboniferous forms. A few Lower Silurian forms were figured and named by Hall, but no descriptions were given.

What should have been the most important work on economic geology of the year, and perhaps the most important thus far to appear, with the exception of Whitney's Metallic Wealth of the United States, already noted, was Lesley's Manual of Coal and its Topography, issued in 1856—an octavo volume of 224 pages. The scope of the volume was, however, scarcely what one would be led to expect from its title, and its possible usefulness sadly marred by the personal claims of the author. Not confining himself to the subject of coal and its topography, he entered freely into the subject of mountain structure, with especial reference to the Appalachians, the formation of valleys, theories of the drift, topographical drawing, and kindred subjects. Lesley was, it should be remembered, a topographical assistant on the survey under Rogers in 1839–1851. Reference to his work while on the survey is therefore to be expected, though it must be confessed one's expectations are somewhat exceeded when he lays claim, on his own behalf and that of Messrs. Whelpley and Henderson—also assistants on the Rogers survey—to having been the first to unravel the intricacies of Appalachian structure. "Years of patient toil," he writes, "it cost us to unfold the mysteries of the Pennsylvania and Virginia range." This same claim, in an even more aggressive form, he put forward again three years later, in his Iron Manufacturer's Guide, which appeared under the authority of the American Iron Association, of which he was secretary, in 1859.[a]

Lesley's Manual of Coal, 1856.

[a] These attacks brought forth an emphatic rejoinder from R. E. Rogers (a brother of H. D. Rogers), which was printed privately in form of a pamphlet of 22 pages, 1859.

The merits of the case can not here be decided, but it would seem most probable that this offers but another illustration of the experiences of every executive who has planned, directed, and rendered possible the work of subordinates, only to find in the end that the value of his instrumentality is quite underestimated, and all credit claimed by him to whom opportunity was given.

In 1856 Dr. Edward Hitchcock came once more to the front through the medium of the Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge with a paper of some 150 royal quarto pages and 12 plates. In this he considered all changes which had taken place since the close of the Tertiary period as belonging to the "alluvial formation," and due to causes still in operation. The products of these changes he classed as (1) drift unmodified and (2) drift modified, under the latter including such deposits as beaches, ancient and modern; submarine ridges; sea bottoms; osars; dunes; terraces; deltas, and moraines. The drift proper he regarded as a product of "several agencies—icebergs, glaciers, landslips, and waves of translation"—which, though more active in the past than now, are still at work. The sandy and gravelly plains (the overwash of modern geologists) and the low ridges of New England were thought to represent old sea bottoms, to be "explained only by the former presence of the ocean above them, with its tides and currents."

Dr. Edward Hitchcock's Illustrations of Surface Geology, 1856.

The terraces of the Connecticut River were described in great detail, with numerous references to those of other regions, both at home and abroad. The chief agency in the formation of these appeared to him, and rightly, to have been water. Moraine terraces, however, demanded the action of stranded icebergs in addition. To account for the drift accumulations at various altitudes, he conceived that the ocean water must have stood some 2,500 feet above its present level. He conceived further "that all the northern part of this continent, at least all east of the Mississippi, had been covered by the ocean since the glacial period," in this agreeing with Agassiz. As to the origin of the material of the "irregular coarse deposit beneath the modified beaches and terraces," he agreed essentially with the German geologist, Naumann, in supposing that: (1) The eroding materials must have been comminuted stone; (2) they must have been borne along under heavy pressure; (3) the moving force must have operated slowly and with prodigious energy, and (4) moving in a nearly uniform direction, though liable to local divergence; (5) the vehicle of the eroded material could not have been water alone, (6) but a firm and heavy mass, somewhat plastic. "Where, now, save in glaciers, icebergs, and ice islands can we find agencies that meet the conditions of the above principles respecting drift?" The exact period of operation of the drift agency naturally he found difficulty in determining. He felt

Fig 1 Terraces on Westfield River
[at the Russell Station]

Fig 2 Boulders on Mount

RIVER TERRACES AND DRIFT BOWLDERS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

that while the greater part of the work was accomplished before the continent had emerged very considerably from the water, nevertheless the work of erosion went on for some time after emergence began.

In his discussion relative to traces of ancient glaciers he called attention to the occurrence of two series of striæ, differing in their direction, the more extensive being what he termed "drift striæ," and the second, much more limited in extent, "glacial striæ," the latter being confined to the valleys. The first he thought due to aqueo-glacial causes; the last to glaciers existing earlier than the drift. Further investigation brought to light other striæ which seemed quite as recent as any caused by the drift agency, and he confessed to a feeling of doubt as to which of the agencies was earliest. "Perhaps there were two periods of glaciers, one before and one subsequent to the drift.

The facts concerning the dispersion of bowlders he thought could be more satisfactorily explained by icebergs than by glaciers, since this transportation and scattering continued till after the time when a large part of the beaches and terraces were formed. Glaciers would have plowed tracks through stratified deposits. Icebergs such as now traverse the Atlantic might carry bowlders over the beaches and terraces and drop them from time to time, forming thus the intermixture of coarse, angular blocks and beach or terrace material as we now find it. "The supposition that a glacier once existed on this continent, wide enough to reach from Newfoundland to the Rocky Mountains, is the grand difficulty in the way of the glacial theory." (See further on p. 471.)

The illustrations accompanying this paper were beautifully executed, perhaps the best, both those in color and in black and white, that had thus far been produced.

A second work of Hitchcock, published this same year and needing a brief reference, was his Geology of the Globe, a small octavo volume of 136 pages, 6 plates of fossils, and 2 colored geological maps, one of the United States and Canada and one of the world.

The source of inspiration was evidently Boue's treatise published under the auspices of the Geological Society of France. On the maps the various formations, indicated by color, were: (1) Hypozoic and metamorphic strata, with granite, syenite, and some porphyries; (2) Primary fossiliferous strata to the top of the Carboniferous; (3) Secondary strata; (4) Tertiary strata; (5) Alluvial deposits; and (6) Volcanoes and igneous rocks of the Alluvial and Tertiary periods. Comparatively few areas are left uncolored—areas scarcely larger than those left as unknown or uncertain on the map published in 1884 by the official survey of the United States. When one thinks of this he can but smile at the naive remark of the author when referring to the coloring: "Nor can I doubt that it is done approximately correct."

Such a work was necessarily largely a compilation and contained little original matter.

Dana on the Plan of Development of North America, 1856.

J. D. Dana, in an article On the Plan of Development in the Geological History of North America, called attention to the fact that the greater mountain ranges border on the greater oceans in both Americas, also to the apparent fact that volcanic activity, or at least the evidence of the action of heat, was greatest along the coasts bordering on the greater oceans.

Assuming that the typical form of a continent is a basin with borders of mountains facing the oceans, and the heights of the mountains and volcanic activity are proportional to the size of the oceans, and again that volcanoes characterize oceanic islands and not continental interiors, he showed that the extent and position of oceanic depressions have in a great degree determined the features of the land; that oceanic depression and continental elevation have both been in progress with mutual reaction from the beginning of the earth's refrigeration. The original V-shaped character of the North American continent he showed to be due to the forces acting from the two oceans.

Fig. 65.—Paradoxides harlani.

"Contraction was the power, under Divine Direction, which led to the oscillations of the crust, the varied successions in the strata." These views, it will be observed, are largely in accordance with those advanced in his Wilkes Exploring Expedition report in 1849.

The Finding of Paradoxides, 1856.

Prior to 1856 the age of the slates of Braintree, Massachusetts, had been problematical. By most of the geologists of the time they had been considered as Primary or, possibly, Transitional. A distinct advance was, therefore, marked when, at the August, 1856, meeting of the Boston Society of Natural History, Prof. W. B. Rogers announced the finding in these slates of trilobites, later identified as belonging to Barrande's Paradoxides and perhaps identical with Green's *Paradoxides harlani*, which had been described from a specimen, source unknown, in the cabinet of Mr. Francis Alger. On presentation of this evidence Rogers felt justified in referring the Braintree slates to the horizon of the lowest Paleozoic group, or about the level of the Primal rocks, the Potsdam sandstone, and the Protozoic sandstone of Owen. The beds, it may be noted, are, in the latest edition of Dana's Manual (1894), referred to the Middle Cambrian, and, therefore, lie below the Potsdam.

With the exception of the papers by Dana and Couthouy, scarcely anything of consequence on the subject of corals, geologically considered, had thus far appeared from the pen of an American. At the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science,

in 1857, Joseph Le Conte, then professor of chemistry and geology in the University of South Carolina, made his first appearance in the geological arena, with a paper, subsequently published in the American Journal of Science, in which he argued that the peninsula of Florida owed its southern continuation to a double process of coral-reef growth and sedimentation from the Gulf Stream. It was his idea that the sediments brought down by the Mississippi sank to a depth beyond observation before reaching the Keys, but were gradually deposited along the inner side of the curve formed by the current as it passed around the point. When the bottom should have become sufficiently elevated by this process, a new reef would begin to form. This process he thought to have gone on until the channel had become narrowed as now, and the rush of water, together with the depth, practically precluded further deposition. Waves throwing broken material upon the beaches would serve to fill the old channels and convert them into dry land. In brief, "the peninsula and Keys of Florida have been the result of the combined action of at least three agencies. First, the Gulf Stream laid the foundation; upon that corals built up to the water level; and, finally, the work was completed by the waves."

Joseph Le Conte on Coral Growth, 1857.

Le Conte further conceived that the rate of flow of the Gulf Stream has been gradually accelerated by the narrowing of its channel, and hence had made itself manifest at a greater distance into the Atlantic, thus bringing about a gradual amelioration of the climate of England.

In 1855 the first State geological survey of Iowa was organized, and Dr. James Hall made State geologist. The organization continued through 1858. The reports of the survey appeared in the form of two octavo volumes, of which the second volume was given up wholly to paleontology. Hall was assisted in this survey by J. D. Whitney, who served as chemist and mineralogist, and by A. H. Worthen, F. B. Meek, and R. P. Whitfield.

Hall's Geological Survey of Iowa, 1855–1858.

Hall noted the rapid westward thinning out of the various beds of sedimentary rocks, including those of the Hudson River, Medina, Clinton, Niagara, and Onondaga salt group, and Catskill Mountain group, and made the following comment:

> This remarkable fact of the thinning out westerly of all the sedimentary formations points to a cause in the conditions of the ancient ocean, and the currents which transported the great mass of material along certain lines, which became the lines of greatest accumulation of sediments, and consequently present the greatest thickness of strata at the present time. It is this great thickness of strata, whether disturbed and inclined as in the Green and White mountains and the Appalachians generally, or lying horizontally as in the Catskill Mountains, that gives the strong features to the hilly and mountainous country of the East and which gradually dies out as we go westward just in proportion as the strata become attenuated.

Again, with reference to the subdued features of the West, he wrote:

> The thickness of the entire series of sedimentary rocks, no matter how much disturbed and denuded, is not here great enough to produce mountain features.

In this, it will be observed, is given the gist of his theory of mountain formation, as announced two years later.

Numerous changes in nomenclature and important correlations were made, or at least attempted. The Lower Magnesian limestone of Owen he considered as identical with the Calciferous of New York, and gave the name Galena to the limestone immediately succeeding the Trenton, and which Owen had called Upper Magnesian. The "Coralline and Upper Pentamerus beds of the Upper Magnesian limestone," of Owen, he identified as Niagara, and proposed the name Leclaire to designate a gray to whitish limestone lying next above the Niagara and found outcropping near the town of that name. The entire series of Coal Measure rocks he showed to have been deposited after the disturbances producing the low folds in the Silurian rocks, illustrating their relative position by the section here reproduced.

The encrinital group of Burlington and that of Hannibal, Missouri, thought by D. D. Owen to be distinct, were considered by Hall to be identical. The entire series of Carboniferous limestones were regarded as "successively deposited in an ocean, the limits of which were gradually contracted upon the north while at the south the conditions were becoming more and more favorable to the development of this kind of deposition and to the support of the fauna which abounded throughout the period, until both culminated in the great limestone formation of Kaskaskia. (The Archimedes limestone of Owen.)

In discussing the relationship of the limestone and coal, Hall quoted from his report on the geology and paleontology of the Mexican Boundary, elsewhere alluded to. With reference to this he wrote:

> The conditions favorable to the production of an extensive deposit of marine limestone are not such as usually accompany the production of coal. In the present instance the ocean, depositing the great limestone formations previous to the coal period, occupied to a great extent the present area of the Coal Measures which succeeded in the valley of the Mississippi. * * * We begin thus to comprehend the truth, that during the period of the great coal formations of the West, in which these calcareous deposits were in course of formation—that during the oscillations which we know to have occurred throughout the coal period there was a time when the whole area became depressed so as to allow the waters of the western ocean to flow over all the Coal Measure region; or, at least, as far northward and eastward as the northeastern part of Ohio, and from hence it derived the limestone under consideration.

The series of beds immediately underlying the Carboniferous rocks at Burlington, and now considered as Kinderhook (sub-Carboniferous), Hall relegated to the Chemung; this proved to be an error, and one that it required many years to eradicate.

It was noted that the Potsdam sandstone seemed likely to be found strongly developed in the Rocky Mountain region.

Subsequent to this period, however, every sedimentary formation indicates the proximity of land on the east. The great thickness of strata, coarse materials, and numerous fucoids of the Hudson River group in its eastern extension indicate proximity to land, or the course of strong currents, while in the west the formation dies out in some inconspicuous fine shaly and calcareous beds, which, both in nature and condition of the material and in the fossil contents, indicate great distance from land and a quiet ocean.[a]

Hall took the ground that the treeless character of the prairies was due mainly to the character of the soil, and inferred, on what seemed

[a] The volumes of this work now in the library of the National Museum were the personal property of F. B. Meek, and many of the statements made by Hall are savagely criticised by the former in marginal notes. Thus, with reference to Hall's statements as to the Potsdam, Meek notes: "It was quite safe for him to make this prediction, when he knew at the time he was writing it, I had identified Potsdam fossils in Hayden's collections from the Black Hills. These fossils were then in Professor Hall's house—he had seen them and heard me say I regarded them as Potsdam species."

Still jealous of his discoveries of supposed Permian fossils in the West, Meek also bitterly criticised Hall's reference to the occurrence of Permian and Jurassic rocks in the Rocky Mountain region, and added in the margin: "This was all intended to bear the date of 1857, although every word of it was written after the publication of our (i. e., Meek and Hayden) Permian and Jurassic discoveries in 1858."

Again on page 142, Hall stated: "In the early part of 1857 Mr. Worthen placed in the hands of the writer some peculiar fossils collected several years since in Illinois and supposed to be from the Coal Measures. These, however, were at once recognized as of peculiar forms, differing from Coal-Measure fossils, and a farther examination proves them to be of Permian types, and closely allied to British species." To this statement Meek has added the following marginal note: "At the time he obtained these fossils from Mr. W. he told Mr. W. he regarded them as lower Cretaceous forms." Also "If he had stated when this 'later' examination was made, it would have been all right; but he leaves it to be inferred that it was sometime in 1857, when, in fact, it was not until after the publication of our paper on the Kansas fossils on the 2nd of March, 1858; and yet he intended at that time that this report should bear the date of 1857."

On page 144 Hall suggested the probability of finding in the West beds of the age of the Jura or Oolite of Europe. To this Meek has added the following: "How wonderfully sagacious he was to make this prediction, when he knew we had Jurassic fossils then in his house (which he had seen) from the Black Hills, Nebraska! Yet what is here written is intended to date in 1857."

Again, Hall says: "Thus far the collections made in the explorations across this western country have brought us no true Jurassic fossils, and it is only in the far north and upon the Pacific coast, as well also as in the southern extremity of the continent, that we have the evidences of the existence of these rocks below the Cretaceous formation." To which Meek appended the following: "At the very time when Professor Hall wrote those words some of Doctor Hayden's Jurassic fossils from the Black Hills were lying in a tray within fifteen feet of him, in an adjoining room. I had called his attention to them and told him I was satisfied they must be Jurassic forms."

It is the old story of jealousy and heartburning (warranted in this case, it may be) which seems an almost invariable outcome of any attempt at mutual collaboration.

to him to be reasonable grounds, that the soil itself originated in form of an almost impalpable sediment, which gradually accumulated on the bottom of an immense lake which once occupied the region.

Hall, as already noted, was assisted in his work on the geological survey of Iowa by J. D. Whitney, who served as chemist and mineralogist. A good deal of attention was given by Whitney to the chemical nature of the coals and the distribution and mode of occurrence of the lead and zinc ores. There was, however, very little of a theoretical nature, and speculations regarding the origin of the ores were almost entirely lacking. He regarded the iron ore of Jackson as having originated, in some instances at least, through the decomposition of nodules of iron pyrites which are distributed irregularly through the rock. In other cases he thought it to be a deposit from springs, the original material, however, having been derived from the decomposition of pyrite, as before.

Whitney's Work in Iowa, 1858.

Considerable attention was naturally given to the lead and zinc ores. He noted that where the Galena limestone had a maximum thickness, the lead deposits were limited to the central and lower portions of the rock, and never penetrated the Blue limestone, and he had satisfied himself that, in a great majority of cases at least, the deposits diminished in productiveness rapidly after passing below a limit perhaps fifty feet above the base of the Galena. When, however, the Galena limestone was diminished in thickness, he noted that the lead deposits were found in lower and lower positions until, at last, the bottom of the Blue limestone was reached, where the Upper sandstone entirely cut off the ore, there having never been a single instance, so far as he had ascertained, in which a crevice had been worked in that rock.

He found reason, therefore, to differ somewhat with Owen in his statement to the effect that when a mine was sunk through the Cliff to the Blue limestone beneath, the lodes shrank to insignificance, as considerable deposits of ore had been worked in the Blue limestone, though by far the larger portion of the lead of the upper mines came from the lead-bearing rock.

As to the possibility of the lead-bearing crevices extending downward indefinitely and the probability of deep mining ever being likely to prove profitable, Whitney wrote, "The question can be answered unhesitatingly in the negative," and went on to state that the most profitable method of mining will be in the form of horizontal excavations or drifts and not by means of vertical shafts.

The Iowa lead deposits, it should be noted, he regarded as occurring in gash veins. The mineral deposits of the Northwest in general were classified under the heads of surface deposits, vertical crevices, and flat sheets, as in his work on the metallic wealth of the United States (p. 438).

Perhaps the most peculiar idea advanced by Whitney in any part of his report is that regarding the origin of the siliceous matter of the Potsdam sandstone.

It has been generally assumed that such sandstones were originally formed by mechanical agencies, the material being supposed to have gradually accumulated from the grinding down of previously existing quartzose rocks. The facts collected, however, seem rather to point to chemical than mechanical causes. * * * We can hardly understand how such an amount of quartzose sand could have been accumulated without its containing at the same time a considerable quantity of detritus, which could be recognized as having come from the destruction of the schistose, feldspath, and trappean rocks, which make up the larger portion of the Azoic series wherever it has been examined. The uniform size of the grains of which the sandstone is composed and the tendency to the development of crystalline facets in them are additional facts which suggest the idea of chemical precipitation rather than of mechanical accumulation.[a]

In 1856 Prof. Edward Hitchcock was appointed State geologist of Vermont, and continued to serve until 1860, at which time he submitted his final report, which appeared in 1861 in the form of two quarto volumes of 982 pages, accompanied by a colored geological map of the State, two maps showing the terraces and beaches, and 35 plates of scenery, fossils, sections, etc. Hitchcock was assisted in the work by his sons, Edward Hitchcock, jr., and C. H. Hitchcock, and by Albert D. Hager, in whose charge was placed the final publication of the work.

Hitchcock's Geology of Vermont, 1856–1861.

The main objects of the survey, as outlined in the introduction, were first, to gain such a knowledge of the solid rocks of the State as to be able to delineate them upon maps and sections; second, to study the loose deposits lying upon the solid rocks and trace out the changes which the surface of the State had undergone; third, to collect, arrange, and name specimens of rocks, minerals, and fossils from every part of the State for the State cabinet; fourth, to obtain a full collection, for the same cabinet, of specimens valuable from an economic standpoint; and fifth, to identify the metamorphosed rocks of the State with those which had not been thus changed.

The systematic geology was in immediate charge of Professor Hitchcock, though aided by C. B. Adams, Zadock Thompson, A. D. Hager, and C. H. Hitchcock. The economic geology was in charge of Hager, and the chemistry, of C. H. Hitchcock. The Rev. S. R. Hall aided in the preparation of a report on the northern part of the State and its agricultural possibilities. The paleontological work was done by James Hall, and the paleobotanical by Lesquereux. Hitchcock recognized at this date that each rock formation was characterized by its peculiar group of fossils not found in any other; so that a paleontologist, on seeing a specimen, could usually tell from which of

[a] The explanation of this error lies in the fact that the grains of which this sandstone is made up have been cemented by a secondary deposition of interstitial silica, so deposited as to convert each granule into a more or less perfect crystal, of which the original sand grain forms the nucleus. It is a case of secondary growth and enlargement, a phenomenon now well known to every petrographer, but undreamed of at the time of Whitney's writing.

the series it came, thus indicating a great advance over any of his previous reports.

His views on metamorphism and the production of schistose and slaty cleavage were still, however, in an immature state. It is to be noted, however, that all through his work he is far from being dogmatic, usually contenting himself with a discussion of, and full quotations from, the expressed opinions of others, stating his reasons for adopting or rejecting any one, as the case may have been.

Referring to the agencies of metamorphism, and particularly the chemical changes involved in the "transfer of ingredients from one part of a mass to another," he wrote: "We know of no other agency by which this could be produced, except by galvanism." To the same agency he would ascribe the production of cleavage, foliation, and joints. He nevertheless recognized the possibility of the metamorphism of sediments through pressure, and dwelt in considerable detail upon the elongation and flattening of pebbles in the conglomerates near Newport, Rhode Island. The jointing of rocks in these conglomerates he regarded, as already stated, as due "to some polar force such as heat or galvanism. Mere shrinkage could not have separated the pebbles so smoothly, much less could a strain from beneath have thus fractured them. * * * A mere inspection of the rock in place will satisfy anyone that no mechanical agency is sufficient to explain these phenomena." Yet to-day "mere inspection" will satisfy anyone that mechanical agency is amply sufficient. (See also p. 510.)

He regarded feldspar in all of the crystalline rocks as the result of a process of metamorphism:

> Silicates probably furnished the ingredients, which, being abstracted by hot water, left the excess of silica in the form of quartz, and formed the feldspar and mica to fill up the interstices. The feldspar, which has converted the cement into gneiss, could have no other origin, and this fact, in connection with all the rest which have been adduced, forces a presumption that feldspar in nearly all the crystalline rocks, stratified and unstratified, is a product of metamorphism.

Further on, he wrote:

> Metamorphism furnishes the most plausible theory of the origin of the Azoic stratified rocks, which are mica, talc, and hornblende schists, gneiss, serpentine, white limestone, etc., such as cover a large part of Vermont.

He recognized at this time the influence of water as an essential constituent of the trappean rocks, since the intrusion of the material, often in thin sheets scarcely thicker than writing paper, could not be explained on the theory of fusion from dry heat alone. "By means of water the materials could be introduced wherever that substance could penetrate."

His ideas concerning the origin of the drift had been considerably modified since his earlier reports, though he was not as yet willing to accept the theory of a continental ice sheet. Thus:

We have no doubt that a part of what we call drift phenomena in New England was produced by glaciers such as we have described as once connected with the Green Mountain range. But the main features of drift we impute to icebergs and ice floes as the continent was gradually sinking beneath the ocean.

He thought, too, to have found evidence that the continent went down to a depth of something like 2,000 feet, and as some of the icebergs in the Atlantic have been estimated as extending 2,500 feet below the surface, he argued that the effects of such could not be distinguished from those of glaciers. Indeed, the idea of a continental ice sheet was still beyond his comprehension, and his chief arguments against the glacial origin of much of the drift was based upon the fact that all known glaciers are confined to valleys; and, moreover, that there was no known glacier more than 50 or 60 miles wide, "whereas the ancient American glacier must have been at least 2,500 miles wide and have spread over all the mountains as well as valleys, and often have been obliged to move uphill as well as over a level surface." The three prominent directions of the drift were to him also arguments against the ice sheet. These were essentially the ideas advanced in his Surface Geology (p. 462).

On lithological grounds the alluvial deposits were classified as (1) drift and (2) modified drift, and on chronological grounds into four periods, in each of which the continent was differently situated in respect to the level of the ocean. These were, first, the drift period, when the continent was under water at its greatest depth; second, the beach period, when it began to emerge; third, the terrace period, when the continent rose to nearly its present situation; and, fourth, the historic or present period. The phenomena of the modified drift as terraces and beaches were worked out in detail in this report by C. H. Hitchcock.

In the chapter on hypozoic and paleozoic rocks Hitchcock expressed the belief that the rocks of Vermont have been thrown into a succession of folds while in a semiplastic condition by a force from the direction of the Atlantic, and that their crests have been subsequently denuded, some 10,000 vertical feet having, it was estimated, disappeared from the surface of the Shelburne anticline. The strata of those folds with westerly dips, on the western side of the anticlines, he regarded as occupying a normal position; while those with easterly dips, on the eastern side, had been inverted, so that, as he expressed it, "though we cross an uninterrupted succession of easterly dips in going eastward we can not infer that we are constantly meeting with older and older rocks, and therefore that mere superposition would not justify one in deciding upon their relative ages."

Concerning the position of the much-disputed red-sand rock, Hitchcock remarked that without an exception it rested upon the Hudson River group, and the stratigraphical evidence showed it to be of the

age of the Medina sandstone or Oneida conglomerate. In this he was in error, the red-sand rock being now universally conceded as belonging to the Lower Cambrian. He also regarded the black slate beneath the red-sand rock as belonging to the Hudson River group, although Emmons had regarded it as Taconic and thought to recognize a Potsdam sandstone in the vicinity of Whitehall, in this respect antagonizing the views of Adams, as announced in his second report.

The name Æolian limestone was given to the marble beds of Dorset Mountain, which had been renamed Mount Æolius. Its exact geological position was not determined, although it was thought that it might be as new as the Carboniferous.

Hitchcock was inclined to side with Emmons in the Taconic controversy, on the ground that the rocks were physically unlike the Lower Silurian which they underlay and differed in the character of their organic remains. The thickness of these Taconic rocks he estimated to be not less than 25,000 feet.

The clay slate directly overlying the calciferous mica schist was thought to be probably of Devonian age. The calciferous mica schist itself was regarded as having been originally a limestone formation charged with a good deal of silex and with perhaps silicates and organic matter, a great deal of the carbonate of lime having been abstracted by carbonated water and the rock converted by metamorphism into a schist.

The numerous beds of serpentine which were found in the State limits were regarded as having been derived mainly from beds of hornblende schist and diorite. Much of the granite of the State was considered as being as recent, at least, as the Devonian period.

It seems almost extraordinary that, even at this date, there were believed by Hitchcock, as well as by others, to be many well-authenticated instances on record in which toads, snakes, and lizards had been found alive in the solid parts of living trees and in solid rocks, as well as in gravel deep beneath the surface. In these cases it was assumed that the animals "undoubtedly crept into such places while young, and, after having grown, could not get out. Being very tenacious of life and probably obtaining some nourishment occasionally by seizing upon insects that might crawl into their nidus, they might sometimes continue alive even after many years."

Under date of March, 1857, an act of the Wisconsin legislature provided for a geological and agricultural survey of the State, which was to be under the joint control of James Hall, Ezra S. Carr, and Edward Daniels. This joint leadership seemed, however, to have proven unsatisfactory, and by a second act, approved April 2, 1860, James Hall was appointed principal to the commission. This last organization proved also to be short-lived, the survey being discontinued in 1862, the legislature

Geological Surveys of Wisconsin under Hall, Carr, and Daniels, 1857.

even going so far as to refuse to refund to Hall the money actually expended by him for the purpose of the survey or to pay for his own services. Under Hall's brief administration Whitney, who had served in a like capacity in Iowa, was employed to complete the work on the lead region and Charles Whittlesey to study the regions lying on the west side of the Menomonee River and the iron region of Lake Superior.

A single royal octavo volume of 455 pages and 9 plates, a colored geological map of the lead region, and a diagram showing the position of the ore crevices, appeared in 1862 as a result of this organization.

In this Hall repeated his attempts at correlation of the western with the eastern formations. In addition he called attention to the driftless area of the State, and to the fact that, over the whole area south of the Wisconsin River, the Galena limestone and a portion of the underlying Blue limestone had been removed by decomposition and solution to a depth of some 350 to 400 vertical feet.

Whitney, in his report on the lead-bearing region showed, as in his previous work (p. 468), that the lead-bearing fissures of the Northwest were limited to one set of strata, and that there are but rarely any evidences of dislocation of the strata or faults. Hence, he was forced to the conclusion that the ore-bearing crevices originated through the action of some local cause or forces which were limited in their field of action to a comparatively narrow vertical range. In short, he conceived the lead-bearing fissures to have been originally closely allied to what are called joints. How far shrinkage and crystalline action may have been concerned in the production of these joints, he was unable to say, but "It will be sufficient at this time to recognize the fact that either or both these causes united would have produced a tension in the mass of rock which would lead to the production of fissures in two different directions." He felt, further, that the direction of the fissures might have been influenced, if not absolutely determined, by an elevatory movement of the region in which they are developed.

He looked upon these veins as having been filled from above, the various metals having been in solution as sulphates in oceanic water at the time of the deposition of the lead-bearing strata, the precipitation as sulphides being brought about through the agency of sulphureted-hydrogen gas, which was liberated by the decomposing organic matter. This is substantially the view held by most authorities to-day. He thought, further, to recognize a general law connecting the lack of mineral deposits in the nonfossiliferous strata with their abundance in those containing organic remains. As in his previous work (Metallic Wealth of United States, p. 438), he differed with both Daniels and Owen as to the metalliferous character of the lower magnesian rocks,

thinking it quite improbable that they would be found sufficiently rich in ores to be worked economically.

Whatever may have been Richard Owen's powers as a thinker or teacher, his key to the Geology of the Globe, published in 1857 when professor of geology and chemistry in the University of Tennessee, is beyond question the most extraordinary travesty on geology and geological methods of deduction that has ever emanated from the American press. The fundamental idea seems to have been that there are analogies between organic and world development.

Richard Owen's Geology of the Globe, 1857.

> Our planet, perhaps, typifies an ovule from the solar matrix. In its earlier igneous chaotic state it bore analogy to the yet undeveloped amorphous structure of vegetable ovules and the animal ovum. Like them, it had at an early period a nucleus, on which after a time air and moisture deposited additional materials, derived from the matrix. At a later period yet a part of these same materials were carried in mechanical mixture, partly in chemical solution, to promote the development of later formations, forming new continents, etc., just as a portion of the seed (the albumen) and the foodyolk of the egg go to nourish the expanding germ.
>
> The separation of continents typifies the propagation of offshoots, or artificially by cuttings in plants, and seems to resemble the fissiparous mode of reproduction observed among the lowest animals. In some of the earlier cataclysms we have the type of the ruptured Graafian vesicles, while at a final convulsive deluge, the period when the Western Continent and Australia were detached, and when possibly the moon as a terrestrial ovule was thrown into space, we readily recognize the type of ruptured pericarpal dissemination of seed in the vegetable world, of completed incubation and parturition in the animal kingdom. * * *
>
> It is by no means contended that this earth is a monstrous organism, with all the parts and properties of a plant or animal; but simply that in it we have everything developed according to the same laws and plan pervading the rest of creation; that in it we see foreshadowed the type of those future forms and changes which organic bodies undergo by the assimilation of these very inorganic materials.

The idea underlying all these generalizations, which the author claimed to have gained while studying sundry maps spread out on the floor of a vacant room, in order to place before his classes "some great principles of generalization," is that the "formations of the western continent corresponded in many respects to those in the eastern" * * * and "that they must have been detached at some period from each other."

He conceived that "the earth in some of its former geological epochs occupied a smaller volume than before the whole of the present superficies emerged from the ocean and than it did before some of the later successive layers were deposited on the earlier formations." Further, that the original internal nucleus of the earth was of the form of a cube or spherical tetrahedron, and that the rocks of the different successive geological periods will be found less and less dense in structure as they leave the north pole and approach the equator. When these beds were upheaved, "the edges of the formations appear to have been brought to the surface along concentric lines, which are parts of great

arches intersecting each other in such a manner as to form equilateral spherical triangles on the earth's surface, each angle or intersection being equidistant from our present north pole." The distribution of coal, the metals, and other mineral products he conceived to correspond with the lines marking these spherical triangles.

The forces which acted in separating the planes above described were supposed to have originated from the internal fluid, materials being thrown into periodical waves by the attraction of the sun and moon, creating thereby electrical disturbances, etc. Indeed, the entire earth he seemed to regard as a gigantic magnet, made so by the heat of the sun.

Before this separation took place the layers composing the South American continent he supposed to have rested on the layers of submerged Africa, Australia to have been superimposed upon Arabia, and North America over a portion of Europe.

Owen further called attention to the fact that, if the north pole were elevated 23½° above the horizon and the globe then revolved the western coast lines of the chief continental masses would be brought successively to the horizon, proving their parallelism; if depressed to a similar extent the parallelism of the eastern coasts would be similarly proven. In other words, he showed that the coast lines of the continents, as well as of many of the islands, tended to conform to the axis of the ecliptic, and he regarded this angular distance of 23½°, which marks the northward extension of the sun in summer, as a natural unit of measure in the structure of the earth.

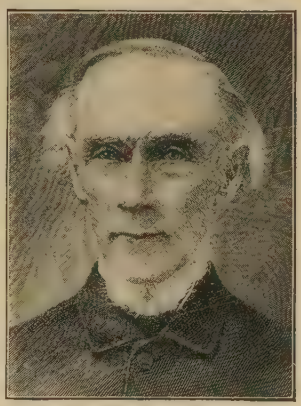

FIG. 66.—Richard Owen.

The book contained a large amount of utterly irrelevant matter, and the above idea and that relating to the possible tetrahedral form of the earth, previously referred to, are the only ones put forward in the work that are to-day worthy of consideration. The book, as a whole, can but impress one as the work of a dreamer, and particularly so when one considers also the amount of irrelevant matter brought forward and the involved character of many of the sentences. Be this as it may, by a peculiar coincidence, at the Montreal meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in August of this same year, Prof. Benjamin Pierce, of the U. S. Coast Survey, brought forward ideas almost identical with Owen's, so far as relates to the parallelism of the coasts, and felt disposed to regard such conditions as evidence that the sun, by influencing in some way the cooling of the crust, had determined the grander outlines.

Owen's ideas regarding the tetrahedral form of the earth, though perhaps original with him, and put forward here for the first time by an American writer, were not wholly new. Those desiring a historical review of the subject, with an account of recent advances and theories, will find the same in a paper by J. W. Gregory, The Plan of the Earth and its Causes, first printed in the Geographical Journal for March, 1899, and reprinted in the Appendix for the Report of the Smithsonian Institution for 1898.[a]

Logan's Proposed Subdivision of the Laurentian, 1857.

At the Montreal meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, for this same year, Logan, referring to previous statements by himself relative to a possible subdivision of Azoic rocks, as given in his annual reports, describes in some detail a series or group of clastic rocks, consisting of siliceous slate and slate conglomerates, holding pebbles of crystalline rocks and sometimes showing ripple marks, which he had traced along the north shore of Lake Huron from Sault Ste. Marie for 120 miles, and which has also been noted in other parts of the Dominion by other observers.

As noted by him on Lake Huron, the formation was some 10,000 feet in thickness and plainly of later age than the gneisses, as well as of distinct lithological character. For this formation he then formally proposed the name Huronian, although the term had been previously used in connection with this formation by Murray in 1848 and Hunt in 1855. To the portion of the Azoic immediately underlying the Huronian he gave the name Laurentian, after the Laurentide Mountains.

At this same meeting he further suggested a possible subdivision of the Laurentian series, in which the calcareous rocks should be considered as distinct from the siliceous. This announcement and the subsequent discussion led to a mass of literature which is perhaps second only to that involved in the Taconic controversy, although, fortunately, without any of its bitterness. Indeed, the entire matter is strongly suggestive of Emmons's Taconic, even if the rocks described could not be accurately relegated thereto.

The principal participants in this discussion, which is even now scarcely at an end, were, aside from Logan, R. D. Irving and Alexander Winchell, though many others took part. Later it was apparently shown that under the name Huronian two distinct formations were comprised, to the older of which A. C. Lawson in 1886 gave the name Keewatin.[b]

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[a] Owen's work was briefly noticed in the American Journal of Sciences. Two or three pages of his matter were quoted, and dismissed with "Remarks on these passages are unnecessary."

[b] For a history of the discussion, see A Last Word with the Laurentian, by Alexander Winchell, Bulletin of the Geological Society of America, II, 1891, pp. 85–124.

During 1857–58 Prof. J. S. Newberry, as geologist, accompanied the corps of topographical engineers, under the immediate direction of Lieut. J. C. Ives, on an expedition up the Colorado River from its mouth to a point called Fortification Rock, north of the thirty-sixth parallel. The main object of the expedition was to ascertain the navigability of the Colorado, with especial reference to its availability for the transportation of supplies to the various military posts in New Mexico and Utah. Newberry entered the country from San Francisco and San Diego, and in Chapters I and II of his report makes reference to the general geology of this part of the region. The party, as above noted, ascended the river as far as the Great Bend, above Black Canyon, and returned thence to the Mojave Valley, south of Pyramid Canyon. Thence the homeward route lay eastward overland to Fort Leavenworth by way of Sitgreaves and Railroad passes in the Black and Cerbat mountains, Bill Williams and the San Francisco mountains, Salt Springs of the Little Colorado, northward to the Moqui Pueblos, and eastward to Fort Defiance, Santa Fe, and Las Vegas (see map). In the latter part of the trip the route lay along that traversed by the surveys for a railroad route to the Pacific under Lieut. Whipple, with which Jules Marcou was connected as geologist. Newberry's report, Part III of the report of Lieutenant Ives, comprised 154 octavo pages, with 3 plates of fossil invertebrates and plants. Made necessarily as a hasty reconnaissance, it nevertheless contains interesting generalities. He rightly regarded the canyon of the Colorado as a canyon of erosion, but conceived that in earlier times the river filled to the brim a series of isolated basins formed by the various mountain chains and interlocking spurs of the synclinal trough through which the river runs, and that during the lapse of ages "the accumulated waters, pouring over the lowest points in the opposing barriers, have cut them down from summit to base," thus forming the canyons. The massive granite walls of Pyramid Canyon, with their capping of stratified gravel, he regarded as conclusive proof of the former existence here of an unbroken barrier "stretching across the course of the Colorado and raising its waters to an elevation of at least 250 feet above their present level." The idea of a possible uplift across the river's course, an uplift so slow as to be counteracted by erosion, as afterward taught by Dutton, was undreamed of, and the mental restorations of past surface contours given are at times startling for their magnitude. Thus, in accounting for the presence of the large bowlders in the gravel of Elephant Head south of the entrance to Black Canyon, with its walls of porphyry from 800 to 1,200 feet in height, he wrote:

The Ives Expedition up the Colorado River, 1857–58.

When the Colorado began the task of cutting down the gigantic wall at the point where its accumulated waters, in greater volume than now, poured down its

southwestern declivity, the cascade which it formed must have surpassed any similar exhibition of nature's forces of which we have knowledge at the present day.

On page 42 of his report Newberry gave a section of the Grand Canyon, showing the bottom granite overlain by Potsdam sandstone, and this by Silurian (?), Devonian (?), and Lower Carboniferous (?) rocks, and, finally, Upper Carboniferous limestone. This was the first section of these beds ever published.[a]

The source of the materials which go to make up the sedimentary rocks of the West, he thought, could not have been derived from the emerged surfaces east of the Mississippi, but were rather "formed by the incessant action of the Pacific waves on shores that perhaps for hundreds of miles succumbed to their power, and by broad and rapid rivers which flowed from the mountains and through the fertile valley of a primeval Atlantis." The outlines of the western part of the North American continent, to his mind, were approximately marked out by groups of islands, broad continental surfaces of dry land, and areas of shallow water from the earliest Paleozoic times.

As already noted, a portion of Newberry's return route lay along that previously (in 1853–1854) traversed by Marcou, and it is interesting to note the different views of the two, offered by this opportunity for comparison. Thus Newberry questions Marcou's determination of the age of the formations near Partridge and Cedar creeks, near Bill Williams Mountain, Marcou regarding them as Devonian and Lower Carboniferous (Mountain limestone), while Newberry thought them to be not older than Carboniferous. In like manner Newberry questioned the Permian age of the Canyon Diablo beds, rightly regarding the same as Carboniferous, and the red sandstone overlying this limestone as likely to prove Permian or Triassic. The yellow sandstone along the Rio Grande was considered as not Jurassic, but Cretaceous.

Newberry's Work with the Macomb Expedition, 1859.

In 1859 Newberry again took the field, this time in connection with a topographic party under Capt. J. N. Macomb. The party left Santa Fe, New Mexico, about the middle of July and, crossing the Rio Grande del Norte, followed up the valley of the River Chama, finally leaving it at the dividing ridge between the waters of the Gulf of Mexico and those of the Gulf of California. From here they struck across the headwaters of the San Juan River, passing along the southern base of the Sierra de la Plata, and then northerly to the junction of the Grand and Green rivers. Thence the party proceeded southward to the San Juan River, which they followed up as far as Canyon Largo, passing thence down the valley of the Puerco to the old pueblo of Jemez, and thence easterly back to Santa Fe. The route, it will be perceived, thus covered

[a] This report contains several graphic views of the Colorado Canyon from sketches by F. W. Egloffstein, but which have been largely overlooked since the more recent work of Powell, Dutton, and Holmes.

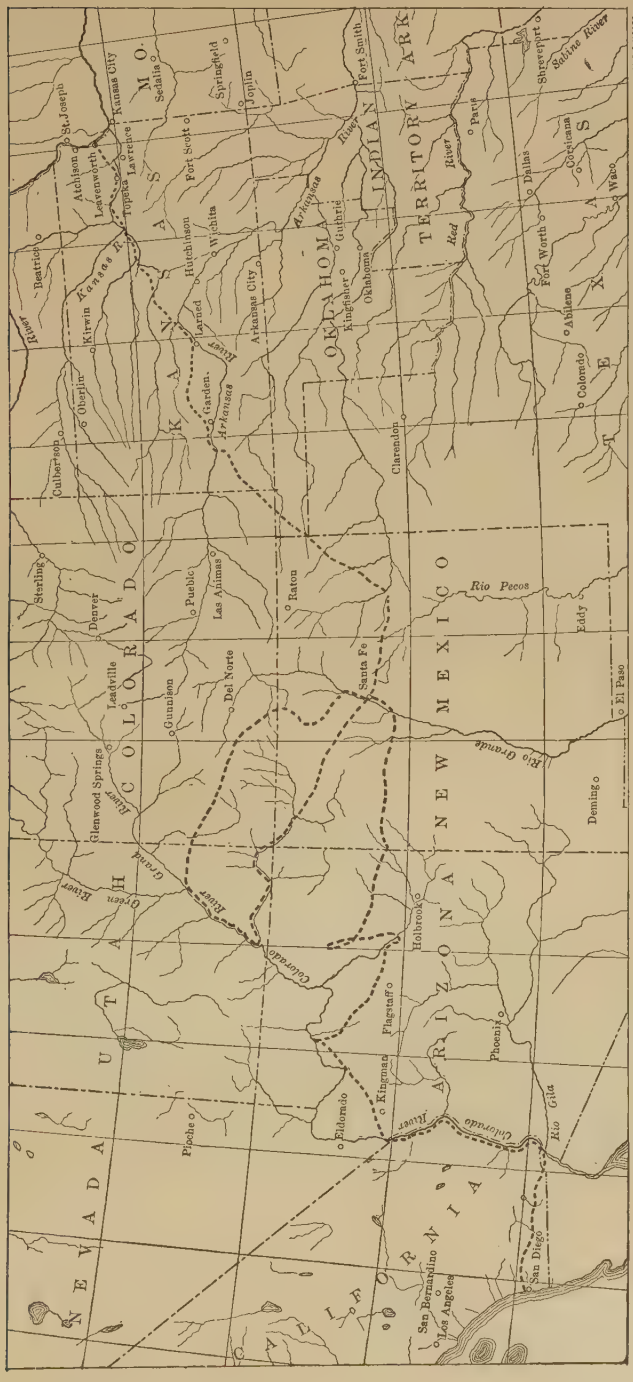

FIG. 67.—Map showing routes traversed by Newberry with Lieutenant Ives and Captain Macomb, 1857–59.

part of the territory previously gone over in connection with the Ives expedition.

The report, though written in 1860, was not published until 1876, owing to the outbreak of the civil war. It comprised an octavo volume of 148 pages, with 8 full-page plates of fossil plants and invertebrates, and a map of the route traversed. Some of the conclusions arrived at during the work of the Ives expedition were confirmed by the more recent work. Perhaps the most interesting of the results as given related to the orographic movements attendant upon the elevation of the Rocky Mountains.

His conclusions were to the effect that—

First. The Rocky Mountains existed in embryo, at least, previous to the deposition of the older Paleozoic rocks, the presence of the upheaved Potsdam sandstone in the Black Hills region showing conclusively that this part of the country was buried beneath the waters of the primeval ocean.

Second. Volcanic activity, which began as early as the Middle Tertiary, continued even into the present epoch.

Third. Previous to the deposition of the Lower Cretaceous strata the central portion of the continent was above the ocean level, the main portion of the Cretaceous sediments being deposited during the period in which a subsidence of several thousand feet took place.

Fourth. At the close of the Cretaceous age a period of elevation began, which continued to the drift epoch. This was succeeded by a period of depression and again by one of elevation.

Fifth. The great elevatory movement of the Rocky Mountains took place between the close of the Cretaceous period and that of the Miocene Tertiary.

Sketch of Newberry.

Newberry was born in Connecticut, but his parents moving to Ohio when he was but two years of age, he passed his boyhood in what was then the western frontier. His father, in 1828, then living at Cuyahoga Falls, opened up the coal mines at Tallmadge, making the first systematic attempt at introducing coal for fuel along the lake shore region. The abundant and beautiful fossil flora found in the roof shales of these mines undoubtedly did much toward turning the young man's thoughts toward science, and a visit from James Hall in 1841, while he was but nineteen years of age, still further stimulated his interest. He graduated at the Western Reserve College in 1846, and afterwards studied medicine, receiving the degree of M. D. in 1848. Two years were then passed in study abroad, during which time he made his first scientific publication—a description of a fossil-fish locality at Monte Bolca, Italy. In 1851 he returned to America and began the pursuit of medicine at Cleveland, but although acquiring a large practice he was soon induced to give it up and enter upon a wider field of useful-

JOHN STRONG NEWBERRY.

Professor of Geology, Columbia College, and State Geologist of Ohio.

ness. In 1855 he became connected with Lieut. R. S. Williston's survey in California, and later with that of the Ives Expedition to explore the Colorado, as well as with that of Capt. J. N. Macomb to explore the San Juan region of Colorado and adjacent portions of Arizona, Utah, and New Mexico, as noted. In 1857 he became attached to the Smithsonian Institution in Washington and also accepted a professorship in Columbian University in the same city.

During the civil war he was attached to the Sanitary Commission, and in 1866 became professor of geology and paleontology in the School of Mines of Columbia College, New York, with which institution he remained connected until the time of his death in 1892. In 1869 he assumed charge of the geological survey of Ohio, as noted elsewhere. That the survey, in common with most others of its kind, came to an untimely end was no serious reflection upon Doctor Newberry, though, as his biographer remarks, a mistake was undoubtedly made in postponing the economic portions of the work until the last, and thereby arousing the antagonism of the rural members, one of whom is quoted as having remarked that too much money was devoted to "clams and salamanders." Newberry also did a large amount of paleontological work in connection with the surveys of Illinois, New Jersey, and the United States surveys under Hayden and Powell. His most important works were those in connection with the Illinois and Ohio surveys, and two monographs published by the United States Survey, one on the Paleozoic Fishes of North America, and the other on the Flora of the Amboy Clays of New Jersey, the latter being edited by Dr. Arthur Hollick after Newberry's death.

Newberry is described as a man whose personality inspired confidence in others, though possessing little of what is known as executive ability—a man of kindly, cheerful disposition, and whose desire for fame never went so far as to cause him to assume credit for others work. A pleasing writer and conversationalist and accomplished musician, he made many friends and retained to the end the respect and love of all who knew him.

> His shortcomings were known to his friends as well as were his excellencies; he was impetuous and sometimes he was severe, possibly unjust, in judging men or in dealing with them. But of bitterness he knew little; of forgiveness he knew much. His defects were those of a strong man; in many they would have been sources of weakness, but somehow they seemed to make his friends stand more firmly by him.

Newberry's work received prompt and ready recognition both at home and abroad. He was a charter member of the National Academy of Sciences; foreign correspondent of the London Geological Society, receiving the Murchison medal in 1888; president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1867; president of the New York Academy of Science for twenty-five years; vice-president

of the Geological Society of America, and president of the International Congress of Geologists in 1891, although then too ill to attend its meetings.

April 20, 1857, D. D. Owen, while State geologist of Kentucky, was appointed by the governor of Arkansas geologist of that State, the appointment to take effect "from and after the first day of October, 1857," at which time it was supposed the Kentucky work would be brought to a close. Owen selected for his assistants, E. T. Cox and Leo Lesquereux, with Joseph Lesley, for topographer, and Robert Peter and W. Elderhorst, chemists. Two large octavo volumes, comprising together some 689 pages, were issued in 1858 and 1860, the first having been printed apparently at Little Rock and the second in Philadelphia. They were illustrated with colored lithographs and engravings after originals in Owen's well-known style.

David Dale and Richard Owen's work in Arkansas, 1857-1860.

On paleontological evidence the zinc and lead-bearing rock of northwestern Arkansas, i. e., the 300 feet of Magnesian limestone and silico-calcareous rock that underlie the marble strata, forming about 250 to 300 feet of the lower and main body of the ridges of Marion County, were put down as of Lower Silurian age, and as in all probability belonging to that subdivision known as the Calciferous sandrock of the New York system. The "marble limestones" of northwestern Arkansas he was unable to fix definitely, but seemed to think it probable they would prove to represent the Onondaga of New York.

As to the origin of the lead ores, he wrote:

> My impression is that the lead ore once occupied these north and south crevices, and was subsequently removed, in part or in whole, into its present bed by transportation, analogous to that known to mineralogists under the name of the pseudomorphous process, by which one mineral is removed while another takes its place, assuming often the form of the first mineral instead of the usual form belonging to itself. * * * That it should have been deposited like a limestone or sandstone is altogether improbable, and contrary to the usual nature of such ponderous and difficultly soluble minerals.

The cause of the hot springs Owen considered to be the "internal heat of the earth." Not that the waters came actually in "contact with fire," but rather that they were completely permeated with "highly heated vapors and gases which emanate from sources deeper seated than the water itself."

The snowy white novaculite from the vicinity of the hot springs he believed to be of the age of the millstone grit, and "once a simple ordinary sandstone. From the state of ordinary sandrock it has been altered or metamorphosed into this exquisitely fine material, not as I conceive, by contact with fire or igneous rock, but by the permeation of heated alkaline siliceous waters." Through this permeation he conceived that "the particles of solid rock have been gradually

changed from grains of quartzose sand to impalpable silica, and the greater part of the oxide of iron, manganese, and other impurities carried out in solution from the pores of the rock, leaving nearly chemically pure silica behind." Such changes are practically inconceivable, and the best authorities to-day regard the novaculites as siliceous replacement of limestone.

A large number of soil analyses were made by Doctor Peter "with a view to settle that very important question" whether such can be of utility to the agriculturist in showing the relative fertility of soils and the loss sustained by cultivation. In Owen's opinion such utility was established "in the most incontrovertible manner."

Owen, it should be noted, died in 1860, and before the publication of the second report, which was brought out under the direction of his brother Richard.[a]

Prof. Lewis Harper, whose work in Mississippi has been already referred to (p. 441), was succeeded as State geologist by E. W. Hilgard, under whose efficient direction there was brought about the first and, thus far, only systematic survey of the entire State.

Hilgard's Geological Survey of Mississippi, 1857–1860.

His Report on the Geology and Agriculture of the State of Mississippi appeared in 1860. It contained a systematic and fairly detailed account of the various formations of the State, together with a table of the formations, as shown on next page, the classification and terminology adopted being that of Safford and Tuomey.

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[a] According to Branner (Journal of Geology, II, 1894, p. 826) the appropriations for this survey were vigorously combated by some of the legislators, one of whom, in his attempts to defeat the bill, introduced the following amendment:

SEC. 12. The same amount which is appropriated to the State geologist shall likewise be appropriated to a phrenologist, * * * and a like amount to an ornithologist and their several assistants, who shall likewise be appointed by the governor, and shall continue in office fifty-four years * * *; and the secretary of state shall forward one copy of each report to the governor of each State in the Union except such as may be known to be black republican governors; also, one copy to the Queen of England and to the Emperors of France and Russia; also, a copy to the Queen of Spain: provided that government will sell Cuba to the United States on reasonable terms.

SEC. 14. It shall be the duty of the phrenologist to examine and report upon the heads of all the free white male and female citizens in the State, and their children, except such as may refuse to have their heads examined.

Table of the formations of Mississippi.

Name of group.	Principal materials.	Fossils found.
Alluvium	Soils, sand bars, etc	Living plants and animals.
Second bottom	"Hommocks"	(?)
Yellow loam	Brown and yellow brick clays	(?)
Bluff formation	Calcareous silt	Terrestrial, part extinct.
Orange sand	Sands, pebbles, clays	These of underlying formations.
Coast Pliocene?	Black fetid clays	Living marine animals, living trees.
Grand Gulf group	Light-colored clays; white sandstones.	Plants, partly extinct? lignite.
Vicksburg group	Marls and limestones	Marine animals.
Lignitic	Black clays	Plants, lignite.
Jackson group	Marls and soft limestones	Marine animals.
Lignitic	Black clays	Plants, lignite.
Claiborne group	Marls and limestones	Marine animals.
	Siliceous sandstones	Marine animals.
Northern lignitic	Black and gray clays; yellow sands.	Plants, partly extinct; lignite.
Ripley group	Marls and limestones; sandy	
Rotten limestone	Soft chalky likestone, clayey	Marine animals.
Tombigbee sand	Greenish micaceous sands	Marine animals.
Eutaw group	Dark-colored clays; sand	Marine animals; plants, extinct; lignite.
Limestone	Fetid, crystalline limestone	Marine animals.
Sandstone	Siliceous sandstone and chert	Marine animals.
Black slate	Hydraulic limestone	(?)

FIG. 68.—Eugene Waldemar Hilgard.

The Orange sand of Safford was shown to characterize the greater part of the surface of the State, and he regarded it as proved beyond question that its deposition had taken place in floating water, the general direction of the current of which was from north to south. By far the greater portion of the State was shown to be occupied by deposits of Tertiary age, leaving out of consideration the strata of Orange sand which covered a large part of the actual surface.

Hilgard's work had an agricultural bearing and, as may be readily inferred from the work of more recent years both in the Mississippi Valley and California, had to do largely with soils, their original physical and chemical constitution, and methods of rejuvenation.

The Kansas Permian Controversy, 1858.

At a meeting of the St. Louis Academy of Sciences, held on February 18, 1858, Prof. G. C. Swallow presented a paper announcing the finding of Permian fossils among some collections submitted to him for identification by Maj. F. Hawn. This, as being the first apparently authentic announcement of the occurrence of Permian rocks on the American continent, excited a great deal of interest and started a somewhat bitter personal controversy between Hawn, Swallow, and Meek, which may be referred to in some detail.[a]

Hawn, it appears, was a civil engineer engaged in the linear survey of Kansas, but whose interest in matters geological led him to make extensive collections of fossils. These, for purposes of identification, he divided, sending the supposed Cretaceous forms to F. B. Meek, then at Albany, New York, and the Carboniferous to G. C. Swallow, at Columbia, Missouri, the particular collection referred to in this controversy being made at the Smoky Hill Fork of the Kansas River.

The collections received by Meek were of such a character as to lead him to think that the beds from which they were taken might be Triassic or Permian, though perhaps belonging to the Upper Coal Measures. He immediately wrote Hawn, asking that he obtain for him other materials and, if possible, get from Professor Swallow all all of those forwarded to him which were not Carboniferous. To this Hawn readily agreed and wrote as follows:

> Professor Swallow certainly will not attempt to interfere with you in this matter. He knows perfectly well the relation existing between us and expressed himself gratified that I was furnishing you with important information in furtherance of your investigation. Furthermore, he has not the data to establish a relation between the several points under review by you. I merely sent him the Carboniferous fossils for classification and comparison with those of the Missouri collection, that a parallel may be established in my further operations.

Again, under date of September 5, 1857, Hawn wrote to Meek:

> I wrote to Professor Swallow * * * and requested him particularly to send you all the fossils that were not Carboniferous, as they were intended for your use. I hope he will comply with my request, as I shall not have time to go to see him.

And again, under date of September 9, of the same year:

> Should this formation turn out to be as you anticipate, new and important, will you discuss the details in an article for my contemplated work on the mineral and agricultural characteristics of K. T., and describe the fossils that are new?

Under date of January 4, 1858, he wrote again:

> I have a letter before me from Professor Swallow in which he thinks the specimens sent him from Smoky Hill Fork are Carboniferous. Therefore suppose he has

[a] It should be noted that Marcou claimed priority in the discovery of Permian (Dyas) beds in America, the discovery having been made while connected with the Pacific Railroad survey in 1853. (See his American Geological Classification and Nomenclature, Cambridge, 1888.) The correctness of his paleontological identification was questioned by Meek, White, Hall, and Newberry.

not sent you any fossils. Of course, I should not set up my limited knowledge in opposition, but I certainly have forms unknown to me and not occurring in Carboniferous rocks of Missouri which I examined.

Under these conditions it is difficult to understand why Hawn should have later entered into a partnership with Swallow for the working up of the collections and the publication of the results, and it is perhaps not to be wondered at that Meek should have denounced the proceeding somewhat harshly in a paper prepared under the joint auspices of himself and Hayden and read before the Albany Institute on March 2 of that year. Hawn, in a subsequent letter to Meek, excused himself on the ground that Meek's letters had led him to believe that he had abandoned the investigation for want of time or for want of confidence in the final result, and that consequently he brought the matter to the attention of Swallow with the urgent request that the collections be worked up immediately, and at the same time notified him of Meek's suggestion regarding their Permian nature. Swallow himself wrote a very conciliatory note to Meek, which seems, however, to have been far from healing the breach between the parties most concerned.

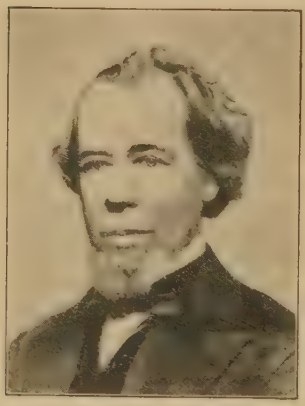

FIG. 69.—Benjamin Franklin Shumard.

The facts of the matter, so far as they can be made out, both from the publications and the letters now in the archives of the Smithsonian Institution, seem to show that, beyond question, Meek was the first to recognize the possible Permian nature of the fossils in question; that he so notified Hawn, and supposed the matter was so arranged that he could work the materials up at his leisure. In the meantime Hawn, as suggested in his letter, thinking that Meek had laid the matter aside, brought it to Swallow's attention, who published the matter with almost unseemly haste in the Transactions,[a] as well as in the local newspapers of the day. In addition, he gave the substance of the discovery in a letter to Dana, dated February 16, which was published as an appendix of the American Journal of Science for March of that same year.[b]

On the 8th of March of this same year B. F. Shumard announced, at the Academy of Sciences at St. Louis, that certain fossils which his

[a] Swallow's paper begins with the following statement, which illustrates his anxiety to claim priority in a discovery, the importance of which was greatly overestimated: "In presenting the following paper to the scientific world, we feel it incumbent upon ourselves to state that it has been prepared in great haste, in the midst of other pressing duties," etc.

[b] Apparently inserted at the last moment before the number was bound up, and too late to be noted in the table of contents.

brother, Dr. G. G. Shumard, had brought from the white limestone of the Guadalupe Mountains of New Mexico were, at least in part, identical with the Permian fossils of Kansas. This is referred to elsewhere (p. 485). Subsequently the supposed Permian was recognized in Illinois by Hall from fossils sent to him by Worthen.

Shumard on Permian in New Mexico.

In the American Journal of Science for May of the year following (1859), Meek and Hayden had a paper on the so-called Triassic rocks of Kansas and Nebraska, in which they expressed the opinion "that the entire series from near the top of the lower Permian of Professor Swallow's and Mr. Hawn's sections, down even lower than the horizon where they draw their line between the Coal Measures and the Permian, should be regarded most nearly related to the Carboniferous and might well be called Permo-Carboniferous." This view for some time prevailed, but recent work has shown that beds, the equivalent of the true European Permean, are present in Kansas, Nebraska, the Guadalupe Mountains, and perhaps in other parts of the West as well.

Meek and Hayden on Triassic in Kansas and Nebraska.

Information regarding the geology of Texas up to this date (1858) had been gradually accumulating through the work of geologists connected with the various exploring expeditions, and more particularly through Ferdinard Roemer's publications. Roemer, it may be well to remark, was a German who came to America in 1845 for the purpose of geological exploration, and passed a year and a half in active work in Texas. The most important of his publications, the outcome of this work, was his Die Kreidebildungen von Texas, und ihre organischen Einschlüsse, Bonn, 1852—a large quarto of 100 pages of text and 11 plates of invertebrate fossils. In 1858 the first attempt at a systematic survey under State auspices was attempted, and Dr. B. F. Shumard, whose paleontological work in connection with explorations under Capt. R. B. Marcy and Colonel Pope have been already noted, was appointed State geologist. Shumard served, through much trial and tribulation, only to 1860, when he was suspended for political reasons,[a] and Dr. Francis M. Moore, who had been one of his assistants, appointed in his place.

B. F. Shumard's Geological Survey of Texas, 1858.

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[a] AUSTIN, *April 5, 1860.*

MY DEAR M.: Your kind letter reached me to-day, and I can not sufficiently thank you for the friendly feeling that prompted you to write it and for the course you have taken in refusing testimonials to the aspirant who desires to supplant me in the place I now occupy. I shall speak to you unreservedly, for I have had too many assurances of your friendship to doubt it. Of the qualifications of the person alluded to, to take charge of a work so important as the survey of this State, I need not inform you. What he knows of geology has not been gathered from study, but from conversations with geologists. Thus he at first made the Coal Measures of Fort Belknap Tertiary and wrote a long article which was published in the Texas papers! He then took some of the same fossils that he relied upon to prove their Tertiary

But one report was issued, a pamphlet of 17 pages, bearing the date 1859. It very briefly outlined the work accomplished, laying considerable emphasis upon the presence of coal and other economic products, including petroleum. George G. Shumard was assistant geologist, W. P. Riddell, chemist, and A. Roessler, draftsman.

Safford on the Unconformability Between the Lower and Upper Silurian Formations in Tennessee, 1858–59.

In a letter to J. D. Dana, and by the latter printed in the American Journal of Science for April, 1858, Professor Safford, then at Cumberland University, Lebanon, Tennessee, called attention to an important and previously unrecognized unconformability existing between the Lower and Upper Silurian formations in Tennessee, indicating, as he felt, the one-time presence of an island some 80 to 90 miles in diameter in the Upper Silurian and Devonian seas, and occupying a central position with reference to the present limits of the State. This he regarded as

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age to the North, submitted them to "my friend Mr. Meek," returned to Texas, and shortly after published a learned (?) article in which he referred these beds to the Coal Measures, their true age. I am aware that he professes to be a friend of mine, but I can cry, "save me from such friends." He says truly that I am or have been in trouble, but all of the trouble has been caused either by himself or his friends. He spent some five or six weeks here last winter during the session of the legislature, and it is believed here that he used every endeavor to get either my position or that of one of my assistants, either of whom are much better geologists than he. Governor Runnels refused him the appointment solely on the ground of incompetency, and insisted, for the same reason, that I should not give him the place of assistant. He has been a politician all his life and for many years edited a leading political paper in this State. No one in this State believes him to be a geologist, although for political reasons some profess to think so. I believe conscientiously that if the geological survey of this State is abolished, it will be done through the maneuvering of Dr. M.'s friends or himself. It would have been abolished last winter had the legislature entertained the opinion that Dr. M. would be placed in charge of the survey. The people throughout the State feel a great interest in the survey. But the important work will assuredly cease with the next legislature if Houston makes the change. I do not know what encouragement Gov. Houston has given Dr. M. He (Houston) has removed every one of Runnel's appointees, except myself, and but for the interference of some of Houston's warmest admirers I should have shared the same fate ere this. I have had indirect assurances from influential Houston men that I am not to be disturbed. It may be, however, that he would like to remove me simply from his hatred to Runnels, and that he would like to shield himself behind testimonials in Dr. M's favor from such men as Professors Henry, Bache, and yourself. Or it may be that Dr. M. wishes the testimonials merely to induce Houston to give him the place. Of one thing I am quite certain, and that is, any testimonials he may succeed in procuring will be employed to the injury of the survey. * * *

I am sorry that I have had to say unkind things of anyone, but in the matter of the Texas survey the case requires it. I shall feel much obliged to you if you will communicate the contents of this letter to Professor Henry, to whom I am under *many* obligations for *many* favors. I shall strive to merit the good opinion that he entertains of me.

* * * * *

B. F. Shumard.

probably elevated at the close of the Lower Silurian period and not again depressed until the beginning of the period marked by the deposition of the black shale (Upper Devonian). Later, in 1859, Safford pointed out the fact that the crinoidal and variegated marbles and ferruginous limestones of eastern Tennessee were originally deposited in the form of long, narrow belts, stretching in a northeast and southwest direction entirely across the State. This striking feature he accounted for on the supposition that the materials were deposited in long and narrow troughs, formed by earlier oscillations or corrugations of the earth's crust, the conditions thus confirming the views held by Professor Dana as to the early Silurian age of the beginnings of the Appalachian oscillations.[a]

H. D. Rogers's Final Reports on the Geology of Pennsylvania, 1858.

The geological survey of Pennsylvania, established under H. D. Rogers in 1836, came, it will be remembered, to an untimely end in 1842. Rogers being, however, unwilling to relinquish the work in its unfinished condition, continued it at his own expense until he was able in 1847 to make his final report to the office of the secretary of the Commonwealth. Here, for some unknown reason, the manuscript was allowed to lie until the spring of 1851, when appropriations were made for revising it and bringing it up to date. The appropriations were continued until 1855.

Gross mismanagement of the funds, for which, it is said, Rogers was in no way responsible, prevented the publication of the report, however, and it was not until 1858 that it was finally issued, and then only under a special contract between the author and the State, whereby the latter was to furnish the sum of $16,000 and Rogers was to receive 1,000 copies of the book and the original manuscript. The work was issued by W. Blackwood & Sons, London and Edinburgh, and J. P. Lippincott & Co., of Philadelphia, and was in the form of two quarto volumes containing 1,631 pages, with 23 full page plates, 18 folded sheets of sections, and 778 figures and diagrams in the text.

This was an epoch-making work, and beyond question the most important document on the geology of America that had appeared up to the date of issue, with the possible exception of the final reports of the New York surveys, issued in 1842–43. From these it so differed, however, as to be considered quite by itself. In the New York sur-

[a] These views are again advanced by Ulrich and Schuchert (Report of the New York State Paleontologist for 1901, pp. 633–663), who state that several folds were developed or older ones accentuated at the close of Beekmantown (Calciferous) time. Between these folds of the southern Appalachians during later Lower Siluric times was the "Lenoir Basin," "containing several disconnected longitudinal folds high enough to affect the direction of currents and consequently the character of the sediments, and, in a smaller degree, faunal distribution." The variegated marbles are in the western or "Knoxville trough" of this basin.

vey stratigraphy based upon organic remains was ever uppermost. In the case of the Rogers reports quite the reverse is true, the physical side preponderating over everything else. While the value of fossils in determining the relative age of strata was recognized, yet out of the entire 1,631 pages but 20 are devoted to invertebrate paleontology and 47 by Lesquereux to a description and discussion of the fossil flora of the Coal Measures. Naturally, many of the results given in these reports and the opinions expressed had found their way into print several years earlier, particularly through the publication of the American Association of Geologists and Naturalists. Especially was this the case with the results relative to Appalachian structure.

Rogers was aided by a considerable corps of assistants, many of whom afterwards became noted in the same lines of work. In 1836 these were John F. Frazer and James C. Booth; in 1837, Messrs. S. S. Haldeman, A. McKinley, C. B. Trego, and J. D. Whelpley, with Dr. R. E. Rogers as chemist. In 1838 Messrs. H. D. Holl, J. T. Hodge, R. M. Jackson, J. C. McKinney, P. W. Schaeffer, T. Ward, and M. H. Boye were added to the force. In 1839 J. Peter Lesley and Doctor Henderson were added in place of Messrs. Whelpley and McKinney, who resigned. In 1840 the personnel was essentially the same. In 1841 it was reduced to Messrs. McKinley, Holl, Jackson, Lesley, Boye, and Doctor Rogers. In 1851 the geological assistants were Prof. E. Desor and W. B. Rogers, jr., Peter Lesley and A. A. Dalson serving as topographers.

The first volume of these reports treated of the metamorphic rocks and the Paleozoic strata. The second volume began with a discussion of the coal basins of the State, to which over 600 pages were devoted. Some 30 pages were devoted to a discussion of the rocks of the Mesozoic red sandstone series, which was followed by a discussion, first upon the igneous rocks and minerals with special bearing upon their economic value; second, the conditions of the physical geography during the laying down of the Paleozoic strata of the United States; third, the organic remains of the State; fourth, the laws of structure of the more disturbed zones of the earth's crust; fifth, the classification of the several types of petrographic structure illustrated in the Appalachians; sixth, the coal fields of the United States and British provinces, with their chemical and physical characters; seventh, the method of searching for, opening, and mining coal, as pursued in Pennsylvania; eighth, foreign coal fields and coal trade and statistics of the iron trade.

The nonfossiliferous rocks underlying the old Paleozoic were classified as *Hypozoic* or true metamorphic and *Azoic* or semimetamorphic, the Hypozoic including the true gneisses and crystalline schists, and the Azoic or semimetamorphic strata "various coarse talcoid and

chloritic schists, semiporphyritic, arenaceous grits and conglomerates, and jaspery and plumbaginous slates," carrying veins and dikes of a metalliferous character.

He recognized the difficulty in at all times separating the Azoic rocks from the overlying genuine Paleozoic, and also the fact that it might at times grade into it without a break. Also he recognized the fact that a portion of his Lower Paleozoic was metamorphic or semimetamorphic. When one reflects on how emphatically Rogers combated Emmons's Taconic system, it seems strange that he should hold to these views.

The belt of metamorphic and semimetamorphic strata extending from Newfoundland to Alabama he designated as the Appalachian or Atlantic Belt, and the one extending westward from the north coast of the St. Lawrence Gulf to the Great Lakes as the Laurentide, owing to the fact that these latter rocks were well developed in the Laurentide Mountains.

The semimetamorphic Azoic rocks he considered as richer in minerals than the true gneisses, and to these he referred the schists of the Atlantic coasts, bearing lead, copper, zinc, and iron, and the auriferous quartz veins of California.

The Paleozoic formation proper, which was estimated to cover probably one-half of the total area of the United States and to have a total thickness of from 30,000 to 35,000 feet, was divided into fifteen distinct series or sets of formations, "extending from the deposits which witnessed the very dawn of life upon the globe to those which saw the close of the long American Paleozoic day." The names assigned to these formations he regarded as "significant of the different natural periods into which the day divides itself, from the earliest dawn to twilight." These were, beginning with the oldest, Primal, Auroral, Matinal, Levant, Surgent, Scalent, Pre-Meridian, Meridian, Post-Meridian, Cadent, Vergent, Ponent, Vespertine, Umbral, and Seral—signifying the Dawn, Daybreak, Morning, Sunrise, Ascending day, High morning, Forenoon, Noon, Afternoon, Waning day, Descending day, Sunset, Evening, Dusk, and Nightfall. These terms, based on time, he considered preferable to the inexpressive ones, mainly of a geographic character, then in vogue.

The Primal, Auroral, and Matinal were regarded as the approximate representatives of Sedgwick's Cambrian; the Levant, Surgent, Scalent, and Pre-Meridian, near representatives of the English Silurian, beginning with the Upper Caradoc Sandstones. He recognized both a physical and paleontological break in the succession of strata at the contact of these two great divisions of the Paleozoic system. At the base of the Carboniferous he thought to recognize a break correspondingly sharp.

The entire Paleozoic system was thus divided into three natural divisions, as follows:

Upper Paleozoic	Seral	Carboniferous	Coal Measures.
	Umbral		Middle Carboniferous.
	Vespertine		Lower Carboniferous.
Middle Paleozoic	Ponent	Latter Devonian and Carboniferous.	Catskill.
	Vergent		Chemung and Portage.
	Cadent		Genesee, Hamilton, and Marcellus.
	Post-Meridian	Older Devonian	Upper Helderberg.
	Meridian		Oriskany.
	Pre-Meridian	Silurian	Lower Helderberg.
	Scalent		Onondaga Salt Group and Niagara Limestone.
	Surgent		Clinton.
	Levant		Medina.
Lower Paleozoic	Matinal	Cambrian	Trenton Limestone, Utica and Hudson River slates.
	Auroral		Black River, Chazy limestone, and Calciferous sandstone.
	Primal		Potsdam.

The sediments making up these Paleozoic strata were, according to his views, derived from a land area now occupied by the Tertiary seaboard plain and the waters of the Atlantic Ocean. This deposition was preceded by a wide movement of depression, which began in the south or southwest and permitted the waters of the Appalachian sea to occupy what is now the upper half of the southern Atlantic slope. There was, however, left above water to the southeast of the present Atlantic plain, a large tract of continent or great chain of islands which, with numerous fluctuations in their limits, remained as such down to the close of the Carboniferous period.

He considered it as "susceptible of demonstration that the various coal basins, bituminous and anthracitic, of Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee were originally united," "the whole as one great formation." This is essentially the view held to-day. The structure of the coal, as he viewed it, rendered "it apparent that no irregular dispersion of the vegetable matter by any conceivable mode of drifting * * * could produce the phenomena which they exhibit," and he could not conceive of "any state of the surface adapted to account for these appearances, but that in which the margin of the sea was occupied by vast marine savannahs of some peat-creating plant, growing half immersed on a perfectly horizontal plain, and this fringed and interspersed with forests of trees, shedding their leaves on the marsh." In this he agreed with Beaumont, though his evidence was of different character. He further believed that the coal material became finally engulfed through earthquake action, the sea receding and then returning once more laden with detritus, carrying everything before it and reaching far inland. Thus the entire

marginal forest growth might be uprooted and as the sea again retreated the material would be spread broadcast and mixed with coarse rock detritus. When finally the earthquake paroxysms ceased and the sea became quiet, the fine silt in suspension was deposited, forming thus the soil for another growth.

The regular decrease in the amount of volatile bituminous matter in the coal as one passes from west to east was accredited to the action of the—

> prodigious quantity of intensely heated steam and gaseous matter emitted through the crust of the earth, by the almost infinite number of cracks and crevices which must have been produced during the undulation and permanent bending of the strata. The coal in the east basin would thus be effectually steamed, and raised in temperature in every part of the mass would discharge its bituminous matter in proportion to the energy of the disturbance.

Rogers, it should be noted, found in the American Carboniferous no recognizable base defined by organic remains alone, and in his classification relied mainly on the suddenness of the change from marine to terrestrial forms and the rapid appearance of that amazing vegetation characteristic of the coal period.

He conceived the Connecticut red sandstone as having been deposited on sloping shores within a narrow estuary, its greatest depth near its eastern margin, the material itself having been derived from the west. The sandstone west of the Hudson in New York State he believed to have been deposited in an estuary having its greatest depth to the northwest, the materials being derived from the southeast. The period, he argued, was ushered in by a sudden agitation of the region, resulting in an abrupt depression of the tidal portions of each tract below the general ocean level. Into these depressions the suddenly displaced drainage would drop a lot of fragmentary material such as would form the lower lying conglomerates. Finer materials brought in later by stream action, and more or less modified by tides, formed the upper beds. He agreed with Emmons in regarding these Mesozoic sands as of Jurassic and Oolitic age.

One of the most important chapters in the work related to types of orographic structure and the physical structure of the Appalachian chain, which was worked out in conjunction with his brother, Prof. William B. Rogers. This formed the substance of a paper read before the Association of American Geologists at its third session in April, 1842, and already noted under that date (see p. 370). It is well to recall, however, that, under the title of *Dislocation of an Anticlinal Axis Plane—Uninverted Side of Wave Shoved Over the Inverted*, he described and illustrated the overthrust faults of the modern geologist, and remarked on their misleading character, owing to the resulting dipping of younger strata beneath those which are older.

The origin of valleys occupying the crests of anticlinal ridges, which he designated as "valleys of elevation," he rightly described as due to

the carving force of waters. The mountains themselves he thought to have been elevated by successive but sudden earthquake movements through and above the ocean; the water of which, as a consequence, was propelled in gigantic billows and rushing sheets transversely across the anticlinal ridges, scooping them out where weakest into the form of terraced oval valleys.

Slaty cleavage was looked upon as due not to movement, purely, but to the action of heat waves traversing the rocks. In proof of this, he cited his observations to the effect that, in gneisses lying in an undisturbed horizontal position, the foliation is almost invariably coincident with the stratification, the heat producing it having flowed upward, invading stratum after stratum. Where granite occurs invading gneissic strata, the foliation, according to his views, is parallel to the plane of outflowing heat. He thought to discover two general laws: First, that the planes of foliation "are parallel to the waves of heat which have been transmitted through the strata," and second, "the foliation is parallel or approximately so to the cleavage, when both occur in the same rock mass.

A singular and, to the present writer, unaccountable discrepancy in the work of Rogers lies in his almost completely ignoring the latest glacial views as advocated by Agassiz and others. The fact that the greater part of the work was completed and the manuscript prepared prior to 1848 can scarcely be considered a sufficient reason, since the years 1851–1855 were devoted to its revision and bringing it up to date. Moreover, his mention of the fact that the marine Pleistocene formation of Canada had been designated Laurentian clays by Desor (in 1850), shows that he was at least conversant with the literature of the period; the fact that he had considered, if not fully comprehended, Agassiz's views, is shown by a brief paragraph, in which he described and figured drift striæ seen on an exposed surface of Umbral sandstone on the south side of the Wyoming Valley. These are described as pointing up the slope toward the southwest, "as if produced by fragmentary débris violently propelled against the sloping mountain wall of the valley from the north." The presence of such ascending striæ, both here and elsewhere, effectually refuted, according to his conception of it, the glacial theory of their origin. Like Hitchcock, he failed to conceive of other than local mountain glaciers of the Swiss type. Without mentioning the name of Agassiz or other of his collaborators than that of Desor, he gave the following, even then antiquated matter, after a general discussion of the distribution of the drift and the various phenomena accompanying it. For the earlier drift, it should be noted, he offered no explanation whatever other than implied in a reference to a period of repose which "separated the convulsed epochs of the earlier general and later local drift."

A ready explanation of the origin of this newest Pleistocene deposit (i. e., that of the Hudson and Lake Champlain districts) suggests itself when we consider the

nature and energy of the crust movements which lifted the Laurentian clays and sands to a height, in one locality at least, of not less than 500 feet, and which drained wide tracts of the Upper Laurentian lakes. The mere agitation or pulsating movement of the crust, if unaccompanied by any permanent uplift of the land, would suffice we would think, by lashing the waters of the tidal estuaries in one quarter and the lakes in the other, to strew a portion of the older drift bordering all those basins in wide dispersion upon the top of the more tranquil sediments; but if such a pulsation of the crust were accompanied with successive paroxysmal liftings of wide tracts of the land, then the inundation would take the form of stupendous currents, the strewing power of which would be adequate to any amount of superficial transportation, even to the remote transportation of the larger erratics.

His ideas regarding vein formation and the origin of quartzite were equally crude. Thus, speculating on the wide distribution of the Potsdam sandstone, its remarkable uniformity and purely quartzose nature, he wrote with particular reference to the last:

May we not conjecture that this * * * was supplied from the great dikes and veins of auriferous quartz, which * * * issued in a melted condition through the rents and fissures of the crust over all the region of the Atlantic slope. * * * Outgushing bodies of this quartz mingled with volcanic steam, and suddenly chilled and pelted upon by cold and heavy rains, may have been granulated into sand, as would occur with heated unannealed glass, and then washed in copious streams into broad, shallow, and tide-moved sea, and there gradually dispersed and precipitated.

From the above it will appear that Rogers was a catastrophist. Further than that, viewed in the light of to-day, many of the conclusions which he drew from observed phenomena and the theories advanced are strikingly absurd for a man of his learning. This is particularly true with reference to his ideas on the formation of anthracite (p. 372), the origin of valleys (p. 493) and mountain chains (p. 371), and that of the Potsdam sandstone just mentioned. Indeed, his entire work well illustrates the peculiar, uneven make-up (if I may be allowed the expression) of some of our best workers. Gifted with a mind unequaled for power of observation and deduction, he was yet wholly deficient in theory." "Great men, of great gifts you shall easily find, but symmetrical men, never."

"The work was favorably reviewed in the American Journal of Science for November, 1859, almost the only unfavorable criticism relating to the deficiency of paleontological work and the geological nomenclature adopted. "The author has left this great department (of paleontology) of the survey to future workers. This being so, the author has hardly a broad enough basis for the institution of a new system of nomenclature and of subdivisions for the Paleozoic formations, and especially for diverging in these respects from the New York survey, in which the subdivisions had been founded upon a thorough study of the organic remains. The names of these subdivisions, Auroral, Matinal, Levant, Surgent, and so on, can not be proved to be better than those before adopted. They are founded on the idea of a Paleozoic day, which has had no existence except in the fancy of the writer. This unfortunate framework, about which Professor Rogers has clustered his facts, is no serious impediment to the geological reader who has a key at hand for comparison.

The work is a great one, worthy of the State which authorized the survey. It contains a vast amount of information in all its departments, and will ever rank among the most important of the reports of the geology of the United States.

As previously noted (p. 433), J. G. Norwood, State geologist of Illinois, was succeeded in 1858 by Amos H. Worthen. Under the latter's direction the survey lasted until 1875, when active field work was discontinued, owing apparently to an indisposition on the part of the legislature to provide the necessary funds. Six volumes of reports had been issued up to this time, and by the aid of subsequent special appropriations, two more were completed, the last bearing the date 1890, and on the title page the name of Joshua Lindahl, State geologist, and Worthen as director. The total published results of this survey amounted to upward of 4,000 pages of text and 197 full-page plates of fossils.

Amos H. Worthen's Work in Illinois, 1858–1875.

Worthen was aided at various times during the work by J. D. Whitney, Leo Lesquereux, Henry Engelmann, J. S. Newberry, F. B. Meek, H. C. Freeman, H. M. Bannister, H. A. Green, James Shaw, G. C. Broadhead, Orestes St. John, and E. T. Cox. The work of Whitney naturally related to the mining problems of the State, Lesquereux to the paleobotany, Meek to the invertebrate paleontology, Newberry to the vertebrate paleontology, and the others mentioned to general stratigraphy.

In the first volume of his work Worthen divided the sub-Carboniferous into five groups: The Chester, St. Louis, Keokuk, Burlington, and Kinderhook, the term Chester group being used in place of the Kaskaskia of Hall, and the St. Louis including the Warsaw of Hall. The blue, green, and chocolate-colored shales immediately underlying the Kinderhook group in western and southern Illinois he regarded as Devonian.

Whitney, in his report, regarded the Galena limestone as the "sole depository of lead in western Illinois," a view not quite in agreement with that expressed with reference to the Iowa and Wisconsin fields. Two maps were given in this report one a geological map of the northwest corner of the State, and the other showing a diagram of the lead-bearing crevices near Galena. The origin of these lead-bearing crevices "seems to be the same cause by which what are called joints by geologists have been formed in almost every variety of rock, occurring in large homogeneous masses, and especially where a decided crystalline texture exists in them." The course of the main set of fissures he thought might have been determined by the axis of upheaval, by which the whole region had been slowly elevated along the north boundary of the district, the metals themselves having been held in solution in oceanic waters and precipitated through the agency of decomposing organic matter.[a]

[a] This is essentially the view held to-day, with this difference: Most geologists believe that the ore was originally disseminated throughout the limestone, and that it has become segregated in veins and pockets through the leaching action of meteoric waters.

Lesquereux, in connection with his paleobotanical work, took occasion to announce his adherence to the view that the coals were the result of the accumulation of sphagnous mosses, in place, i. e., were not drift. He also introduced a chapter on the origin of prairies, in which he took the ground "that all the prairies of the Mississippi Valley were formed through the slow recession of sheets of water of varying extent, whereby the existing lakes were gradually transformed into swamps and bogs and ultimately into dry land. The black surface soil of the prairies he thought to be due to the growth and decomposition of bog vegetation, confervæ, etc." With this view Worthen, in the fifth volume of the reports, did not wholly agree. No one theory, he thought, was sufficient to explain all the phenomena noted, though the chief cause of the treelessness of the prairies he felt to be due to the character of the soil itself. The loess Worthen regarded as of fluviatile origin. Concerning the origin of the drift as a whole, he wrote:

> Thus it will be seen that the first and greatest of the drift forces was the glacier; then the floating iceberg and ice field produced their results, carrying the large bowlders from place to place and dropping them over the ice-cold seas; and lastly, the wave and current force of water, after the ice had in part or altogether melted, leaving the loose clays, sands, and subsoils, substantially as we find them.

In his second report, published in 1866, Worthen adhered to the determination first published in the Transactions of the Philadelphia Academy of Sciences, 1865, to call by the name of the Cincinnati group the rocks of the State grouped by Hall under the name of Hudson River. This volume was devoted wholly to the paleontology of the State, and contained articles by Newberry, Meek, Worthen, and Lesquereux. Newberry, in his work on the fossil fishes, accounted for the abundance of some of these forms in certain strata as due perhaps to the sudden introduction of "heated waters or noxious gases" in the Carboniferous seas where these forms lived.

The third volume appeared in 1868, and was given up to a discussion of the geology of the various counties, with paleontology by Meek and Worthen.

The fourth volume appeared in 1870. It was devoted quite largely to paleobotany by Lesquereux, vertebrate paleontology by Newberry and Worthen, and descriptive geology of the various counties by Worthen, Bannister, Bradley, and Green.

Sketch of Worthen.

Worthen was born in Vermont in 1813, and educated in the common schools and the local academy. In 1834 he emigrated to Kentucky, and in 1836 removed thence to Warsaw, Illinois, where he made his permanent home. Until 1855 he was engaged in mercantile pursuits, but devoted all his spare time to a study of the local geology, to which he was attracted by the abundant fossil remains for which the region was noted.

At the time he began his work satisfactory text-books were few and the difficulties which he encountered in addition may be best understood when it is remembered that work was undertaken more than fifty years ago, when railroads were practically unknown, when postage on a single letter cost 25 cents, and when, moreover, money was scarce and labor cheap. There being no overland freight or express lines, all his exchanges of specimens with friends in the East were made by means of Mississippi River steamboats between Warsaw and New Orleans, and Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic sailing vessels between New Orleans and Boston. Often months would elapse between the time of his sendings and return of exchange material.

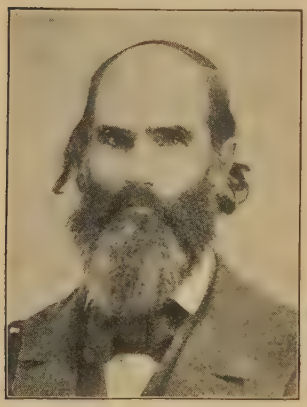

FIG. 70.—Amos Henry Worthen.

In 1851 Worthen first began attendance upon the meetings of the American Association, and in 1853, as noted, took part in the survey of the State of Illinois, under the direction of J. G. Norwood. From 1855–1857 he was assistant to James Hall on the survey of Iowa, and in 1858 was made State geologist of Illinois in place of Norwood, as already mentioned.

Worthen's own labors related principally to the Carboniferous rocks, and to him belongs the credit of being the first to work out the true relations of the divisions of the Lower Carboniferous system in this section.

Personally, as we are told by his biographer, Worthen was of manly presence, kindly, candid, and of unpretentious manner, impulsive and generous to his friends, charitable even to those with whom he had little sympathy, but uncompromising in his love of justice and scientific truth. His thorough interest in his work is shown by his persistent continuation of the same under the most adverse conditions. Again and again his work was in danger of suspension by the threatened failure of the necessary appropriations by the legislature, and more than once they were so far reduced that only the most careful management averted disaster. Once during 1875–1877 the appropriations were allowed to entirely fail, but he continued his work without compensation and with such sincerity of purpose that they were resumed by the next legislature.

Lesquereux, whose paleobotanical work has been on several occasions described in these pages, and to whom we shall again have occasion to refer, was born at Fleurier, Switzerland, in 1806, and came to America with Arnold Guyot, about 1848. His early scientific studies were on living plants; but later, and particularly after coming to America, he turned his attention almost exclusively to fossil forms. His work on the coal plants of Ohio, Pennsylvania, Illinois, and

Arkansas began in 1850, and his papers appear in the geological survey reports of all these States. His work on the coal flora of Pennsylvania was particularly valuable, forming what was at the time the most important work on Carboniferous plants published in America. Lesquereux became early connected with the Hayden surveys, and to the time of his death, in 1889, was actively engaged in the study of the materials collected by members of this organization. Deaf from early manhood, a foreigner, with but poor command of English, he labored under enormous disadvantages. To an interviewer he once remarked:

Sketch of Lesquereux.

> The science student's life is absorbed with grave and serious truths; they are naturally serious men. My associations have been almost entirely of a scientific nature. My deafness cut me off from everything that lay outside of science. I have lived with nature, the rocks, the trees, the flowers. They know me. I know them. All outside are dead to me.

FIG. 71.—Leo Lesquereux.

In April, 1858, Henry Youle Hind, of Toronto, was authorized by the provincial government of Canada to explore the region "lying to the west of Lake Winnipeg and Red River, and embraced (or nearly so) between the rivers Saskatchewan and Assiniboine, as far west as South Branch House on the former river." He was directed further to procure all the information in his power respecting the geology, natural history, topography, and meteorology of the region. The work was accomplished between June 14 and October 31, the results being published in 1859 in form of a thin quarto volume of 201 pages, with a colored geological map, two plates of fossils, and other maps, figures, and sections. The region was described as occupied by Laurentian gneisses to the east of Lake Winnipeg, succeeded to the west by Silurian, Devonian, and Cretaceous formations. The Cretaceous fossils were described by F. B. Meek and the Devonian and Silurian forms by E. Billings.

Hind's Work in the Winnipeg Country, 1858.

Hall's principal contribution to strictly physical geology was that relating to the accumulation of sediments and the formation of mountain chains. The first brief announcement of this was made in his reports on the geology of Iowa, (p. 465). In 1857 he brought the matter before the public once more in his address before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at Montreal. This address was, however, not printed at the time, and it was not until two years later that he

Hall's Views on Sedimentation and Mountain Building, 1859.

formulated his views and gave them in extension in part six of the third volume of the Natural History of New York. In 1869, in an address on the Geological History of the North American Continent, delivered before the American Institute of New York, he reiterated many of the opinions previously announced, and, finally, in 1882 brought out the original address of 1857, and this, it is said, without revision. Whatever changes or additions it was found desirable to make were added in the form of supplementary notes. The subject may, therefore, be conveniently reviewed at this date (1859).

Hall had shown that one simple and intelligible sequence of strata, from the Potsdam sandstone to the end of the Coal Measures, covered, with slight exceptions, the entire country from the Atlantic slopes to the base of the Rocky Mountains, and that while the horizontal strata gave their whole elevation to the highest parts of the plain, the same beds were folded and contorted in the mountain region, thus giving to the mountain elevation not one-sixth of their actual thickness. He thought to have shown conclusively that the line of greatest accumulation of sediments had been along the direction of the Appalachian chain; in other words, that the Appalachian chain was itself due to the original deposition of materials and not to any subsequent action or influence breaking up and dislocating the strata of which it was composed.

Discussing the cause of this folding and plication, he referred to the fact previously recognized by Herschel to the effect that sea bottoms, when loaded by accumulated sediments, undergo a process of subsidence which may cause an elevation of the adjacent continental areas, a principle which was then becoming generally recognized and which has since become known under the name of *isostacy*. When, then, these sediments were spread along a belt of sea bottom, as originally in the line of the present Appalachian chain, the first effect would be to produce a yielding of the earth's crust beneath and a gradual subsidence. Evidence of this subsidence was furnished by the great amount of material accumulated, for it was impossible, he argued, to suppose that the sea had been originally as deep as the thickness of the accumulations (some 40,000 feet).

The line of greatest depression would, therefore, be along the lines of greatest accumulation. By such a process of subsidence the lower side of the accumulations would become gradually curved and stretched, and there would follow, as a sequence, rents and fractures. On the surface above, which would be contracted horizontally by such subsidence, there would be produced wrinkles and foldings of the strata. Into the rifts formed below it was conceivable there might rush fluid or semifluid material, producing what are now evident as trap dikes.

The sinking of the mass would produce a great synclinal axis, and within this axis, whether on a large or small scale, would be produced

numerous smaller synclinal and anticlinal axes. The greater amount of compression above or stretching below along the line of maximum thickness of the sediments would account for the gradual decline toward the margin of the major syncline or the evidences of fracture and distortion. This, he thought, afforded a partial explanation of the fact that mountain elevations in disturbed regions bear, in their altitude, a much smaller proportion to the actual thickness of the formation than do the hills in undisturbed regions; and, further, that since in the formation of an anticline the beds are weakest at the ridge and become more liable to denudation, such are often worn down to form low ground or even deep valleys, while the synclinal arches, being protected in the downward curvings of the beds, may remain to form the prominent mountain crests, as is observable in the southern Appalachians. It nowhere seemed to him that folding or plication had contributed to the altitude of the mountains, but rather that the more extreme the plication the greater had been the general degradation of the mass wherever subjected to denuding agencies.

The chief elevation of the Appalachian chain, he argued, was continental and not of local origin, and the present mountain barriers to him were but the visible evidences of the deposits upon an ancient ocean bed, while the determining cause of their elevation existed long anterior to the production of the mountains themselves.

> At no point nor along any line between the Appalachian and Rocky Mountains could the same forces have produced a mountain chain, because the materials of accumulation were insufficient, and though we may trace what appears to be the gradual subsiding influences of these forces, it is simply in these instances due to the paucity of the material upon which to exhibit its effects.

Referring to the amount of metamorphism which these rocks had undergone, Hall thought that we must look to some other agency than heat for the production of the phenomena, and that the "prime cause must have existed within the material itself; that the entire change was due to motion or fermentation and pressure aided by a moderate increase of temperature, producing chemical change." Just what is meant by this it is difficult to say, but, inasmuch as Hall seems to have been in consultation with Sterry Hunt, it is safe to assume that it was intended to include all possible causes which future investigation might show to have been operative.

These views of Hall seem not to have been favorably received at first by the American geologists, and were facetiously referred to by Dana as proposing a system of mountain making with mountains left out. To this Hall very justly replied that he had not intended to offer any new theory of elevation, nor to propound any principle as involved beyond what had been suggested by Babbage and Herschel. What he did intend to imply was that mountain elevation was due to sedimentary accumulation and subsequent continental elevation.

Hunt, coming to Hall's assistance, argued that his views were largely in harmony with those previously maintained by masters in the science of geology, de Montlosier, as early as 1832, having declared that the great mountain chains of Europe were but the remains of continental elevations which had been cut away by denudation, the foldings and inversions in the structure of mountains being looked upon as local and accidental.

Joseph Le Conte, in a later paper, was inclined to criticise Hall's theory as insufficient, but a statement of his views, as well as those of Dana, may be left to their proper place in chronological succession.

FIG. 72.—Henry Engelmann.

Engelmann's Work in Utah, 1859.

In 1859 Henry Engelmann accompanied, as geologist, an expedition commanded by Capt. J. H. Simpson, organized for the purpose of opening new wagon routes for military purposes across the Great Basin of Utah. Engelmann's report, accompanied by one of Meek's on the invertebrate fossils, formed Appendixes I and K of the general report of the expedition. Originally, as it would appear from the text, the manuscript was accompanied by a geological map and profile, though such do not seem to have been published. No explanation is offered, but it is probable that developments during the long interval up to time of publication[a] were such as to make the map of doubtful value, and it was suppressed. Engelmann's observations began with the country in the immediate vicinity of Leavenworth. He noted the presence of rocks of Carboniferous and Permo-Carboniferous ages along the Republican River, and of Cretaceous and Tertiary deposits farther west. In the district leading from the eastern foothills of the Rocky Mountains to the divide between the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific he thought to recognize rocks of Silurian and probably Devonian, Carboniferous, Permian, Triassic, Jurassic, Cretaceous, and Tertiary ages.

[a] Owing to the outbreak of the civil war, the publication of the report was delayed until 1876.

CHAPTER VI.

THE ERA OF STATE SURVEYS, FOURTH DECADE, 1860–1869.

The period of the civil war might naturally be expected to be a period of uncertainty and inaction in matters relating to the sciences. In all the seceding States work then in progress was brought abruptly to a close, and in several of them—as Missouri, North Carolina, and Texas—the records so far lost or ruined through neglect as to make them well-nigh valueless for future reference. Throughout the North the results were comparatively less disastrous, though even there work was in some instances temporarily discontinued, owing to the failure of legislatures to make the necessary appropriations. In four instances, however (California, Indiana, Maine, and New Jersey), surveys were established almost in the midst of the threatened disaster.

With the passing of these years of turmoil, active work was begun once more in States where it had been but temporarily suspended, and in others, new organizations authorized, as in Kansas in 1864, Iowa and North Carolina in 1866, and Louisiana, Michigan, and Ohio in 1869. A futile and ill-considered attempt at a State survey of Nevada was also made in 1866 (?), but, fortunately for the reputation both of the science and the individual, no one was found to undertake the work under the conditions proposed.[a] W. E. Logan continued his work as provincial geologist of Canada, and Murray and Richardson were employed in Newfoundland.

The literature of the decade was scarcely as voluminous as in either the preceding or the one following. By far the most important, when all is taken into consideration, was the first edition of Dana's Manual of Geology—a work of 798 pages, which at once took its place as the leading authority on all matters pertaining to American Geology—a place which it has continued to hold through all its four editions down to the present. In addition to this may be mentioned Logan's summation of the geology of Canada (1863) and Cooke's New Jersey (1868).

This was largely an era of new workers, or, at least, new leaders. Eaton was gone; D. D. Owen died at its very beginning; the elder Hitchcock had largely ceased his labors; while the Rogers brothers had both become absorbed in the work of teaching and administration, and no longer took an active part. Dana was undoubtedly the leading

[a] The sum of $6,000 is stated to have been appropriated, with the stipulation that the survey be completed in eight months.

figure, while James Hall, by sheer physical energy, dominated in matters paleontological. Many new names and faces appear. Among them may be mentioned those of T. B. Brooks, E. Billings, Robert Bell, E. T. Cox, E. D. Cope, F. V. Hayden, C. H. Hitchcock, W. C. Kerr, W. E. Logan, Alexander Murray, J. G. Norwood, Edward Orton, R. Pumpelly, C. Rominger, N. S. Shaler, C. A. White, and Charles Whittlesey.

As a whole, the decade was one of extension of the geographic boundaries of knowledge rather than one of discovery or announcement of new principles. Of all subjects, that of glaciation received, perhaps, the most attention. Our line of separation between this and the decade to follow must be quite arbitrary, since several important surveys were organized during 1869 and continued well on into the seventies.

R. Thomassy's Practical Geology of Louisiana, 1860.

At the very beginning of this era there appeared R. Thomassy's Geologie Pratique de la Louisiane, a small quarto volume of 263 pages, with 6 plates. Why the word "pratique" should have been introduced into the title it is hard to say, a large proportion of the work being given up to geographical and meteorological or physiographical matters, and the really geological portion limited to a description and discussion of the lower Mississippi, its delta, and attendant phenomena. Its appearance seems to have excited little interest, not being even noted in the American Journal of Science, and the few original ideas advanced are referred to by Hilgard and other subsequent writers only to show their erroneous nature.

Thomassy dwelt in considerable detail upon the absorption of the waters of the Mississippi by the porous terranes above New Orleans and their consequent diminution in volume seaward. The "mud lumps," so common in the lower reaches of the river, he regarded as due to mud springs, having their source at a somewhat higher level on the land and opening upward in the bed of the stream.

He considered North Island, or Petite Anse, as it is more commonly known, as of volcanic origin, and thought to have discovered traces of the violent corrosive action of thermal waters and acids on the rock fragments which he conceived to have been ejected from the depths of the Gulf through explosive action. Richard Owen, it may be mentioned, while serving in the Federal Army and stationed at New Iberia, Louisiana, studied these deposits cursorily, and came to the conclusion that the island was not volcanic. On the contrary, he thought the salt was the product of evaporation of modern sea water, forming lagoons behind protecting ridges under the influence of occasional high tides. (See also Hilgard's views, p. 561.)

In 1859, largely through the efforts of Alexander Winchell, then professor of physics and civil engineering in the State University,

ALEXANDER WINCHELL.

Professor of Geology and Paleontology, University of Michigan, and State Geologist of Michigan.

there was established a geological survey of Michigan. Of this Winchell was appointed director, making his first Report of Progress—an octavo volume of 339 pages—in 1861. In this report he called attention to the futility of efforts then being made to produce salt in the vicinity of Grand Rapids, and fully anticipated the development of the same industry in the Saginaw Valley, his explorations enabling him to locate the salt beds at a depth of 650 feet. Attention was given, also, to the occurrence of gypsum, coal, iron, and other economic products and to the geographical distribution of rocks belonging to the various formations throughout the State.

Winchell's Work in Michigan, 1859–1861.

The so-called Marshall sandstone (Lower Carboniferous) he regarded on paleontological grounds as lying above the Hamilton group. He found evidence which led him to conclude that the Ohio and Michigan coal basins were never continuous, as had been heretofore asserted, and, indeed, that the geological column in the latter State had been built up quite distinct and independently from that in adjacent regions. He could find no parallelism between the Carboniferous limestones and those lying farther to the west, and all the evidence indicated to him that these deposits were laid down in an isolated basin cut off from that of Ohio to the south throughout the entire period from the Helderberg to that of the drift. In consequence of the outbreak of the civil war no appropriations were made for the continuation of the survey after 1861.

Winchell was born in the town of Northeast, Dutchess County, New York, in 1824, and graduated at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut, in 1847. His scientific tendencies are said to have manifested themselves at a very early age, although he showed no marked preference for any branch of study, unless it was toward mathematics, in which pursuit he seems to have been little short of precocious. Immediately after graduating he entered upon a career of teaching and lecturing, which kept him prominently before the public for over forty years.

Sketch of Winchell.

His first public geological lectures were given at Pennington Seminary in 1849. In 1850 he assumed charge of an academy at Newbern, Alabama, but finding the conditions were not what he had been led to expect, he resigned, and in the spring of 1851 opened the Mesopotamia Female Seminary at Eutaw, in the same State. Finding, however, that he was illy adapted to the successful management of a Southern female institution, he gave up this position to accept the presidency of the Masonic University at Selma, Alabama. While engaged in the work of presenting the claims of this university before the people in the southern part of the State, he made extensive geological tours throughout the region and brought together large collections in natural history. In November, 1853, he was elected to the chair of physics

and civil engineering in the University of Michigan, at Ann Arbor, and entered upon his duties in January, 1854.

In 1859 he was commissioned by Governor Moses Wisner, of Michigan, as State geologist, as above noted, holding the position for two years, when the survey was abolished through failure on the part of the legislature to make proper provisions for its continuance. He issued while holding this office one Report of Progress, an octavo volume of 339 pages, published in August, 1861. In 1869 the survey was reorganized and Winchell again appointed director, he assuming for himself the personal investigation of the lower peninsula. His report, a small octavo volume of 64 pages, appeared in 1871, the previous report on the Grand Traverse region, a work of 97 octavo pages, having appeared in 1866.

Owing to hostility over the management of the survey, which had been aroused in the legislature by personal enemies of Winchell, it appeared likely that the appropriations for carrying on the survey would fail. Hence he resigned the position in 1871.

In 1873 Winchell resigned also his professorship at the University of Michigan, accepting the position of chancellor of Syracuse University, which he held, however, only until June, 1875. In this latter year he was offered the professorship of geology, zoology, and botany in Vanderbilt University, at Nashville, Tennessee, but did not see fit to accept, although he did subsequently fill a three months' engagement there. In May, 1878, he took final leave of the university, and the chair was abolished, owing to some foolish differences of opinion that had arisen between himself and Bishop McTyeire, who took exception to Winchell's stand in reference to pre-Adamites and evolution.

In June, 1879, Winchell was again called to Ann Arbor, being offered the chair of geology and paleontology in the State University. This position he accepted and continued to hold until the time of his death. In March, 1887, he was offered the position of State geologist of Arkansas, but refused.

Winchell's work as a geologist, as may be readily imagined from this sketch, was of a more or less fragmentary nature, and it is as a teacher, public lecturer, and writer on scientific subjects that he is best known. The advanced stand which he took regarding evolution brought him in conflict with the religious element, particularly at Vanderbilt University, as already referred to.

Winchell was for a time connected with the Minnesota geological survey. He was one of the original promoters of the American Geologist and the Geological Society of America. As stated by his biographer:

> His largest educational field, however, was the public platform. Here he was under no constraint by reason of youthful auditors. No limits were set to his rhapsodic scientific eloquence; no courteous regard for the amenities of possible profes-

sorial etiquette hampered the free flow of his criticism, or the exultant prophecy of the betterments of the future. * * * Himself a working geologist in the field, he was well acquainted with geological methods. A teaching geologist in the university, he was skillful in imparting his own knowledge and in training others to habits of observation and investigation.

As a writer of books Winchell will be remembered for his Sketches of Creation, 1870; the Doctrine of Evolution, 1874; Pre-Adamites, 1880; Sparks from a Geologist's Hammer, 1881; World Life, 1883, and his text-book, Elements of Geology, 1886. Of these his work on World Life is undoubtedly the one showing the greatest amount of research and thought, and was at that time probably the only one in the English language covering in a systematic manner the entire field of world history.

In 1859 D. D. Owen had, for the second time, accepted an appointment as State geologist of Indiana, but with the stipulation that, until his surveys in Arkansas and Kentucky, upon which he was then engaged, were completed, most of the field work should be performed by his brother Richard. Owing, however, to Doctor Owen's death in 1860, the work fell wholly upon the brother, who succeeded him in the office of State geologist.

Work of D. D. and Richard Owen in Indiana, 1859–1862.

The results of the survey are comprised in an octavo volume of 364 pages, issued in 1862. Like other of this author's writings, it is prolix and uninteresting, differing in this respect in a marked degree from those of David Dale.

The importance of fossils was recognized, and it was set down as an "unquestioned truth that a certain vertical range or ascertained thickness of fossiliferous rock is characterized by the organic remains of plants and animals, differing more or less from the plants and animals in the rocks above as well as those in the rocks below the given layers or strata." The rocks of the State were all classified under: (1) Lower Silurian; (2) Upper Silurian; (3) Devonian; (4) Subcarboniferous; (5) Coal Measures, and (6) the Drift or Quaternary. Some 25 pages were given up to soil analyses by Robert Peter, and 70 to a report on the Distribution of the Geological Strata in the Coal Measures of the State, by Leo Lesquereux

No maps or sections accompanied the report, which, as a whole, is singularly lacking in interesting or instructive matter. J. Lesley served as topographer.

With the outbreak of the civil war Owen resigned to take command of a company of volunteers, and this, the third attempt at a geological survey of Indiana, came to an end.

Prevailing ideas regarding conditions of sedimentation have been frequently referred to in these pages, but with more particular reference to the position of the sea floor—whether inclined or horizontal—upon which the sedimentary beds were deposited. A new phase of the question was brought to light during a discussion between W. B. Rogers and

Louis Agassiz at the meeting of the Boston Society of Natural History, March 21, 1860.

Rogers argued that the strata between Lake Ontario and the Pennsylvania coal region were deposited on gradually subsiding sea bottoms. On this supposition only could he account for the relative position of the beds and their very great thickness. Had they been formed as argued by some on a gradually rising sea bottom, the older deposits would crop out at the higher levels and the successively later ones at lower levels. Agassiz, on the other hand, maintained that there was no subsidence during the deposition of the New York strata, and that the facts indicated just the reverse, i. e., an upheaval. During the upheaval, he argued, the level of the sea might be actually less, from the contraction of the earth while cooling, but in consequence of this contraction the ocean would always remain at a certain depth, sufficient for the deposition of the thousands of feet of strata. The study of the fossils he argued was also opposed to the theory of subsidence and denudation, since those of the Primary were never found carried into the Secondary beds.

Ideas of Rogers and Agassiz on Subsidence and Deposition, 1860.

At the April 4 meeting the discussion was resumed, when Rogers took the ground that an assumption of an upward movement of the sea bottom carried with it the admission of an original depth so enormous as to be incompatible with the accumulation of the material of the earlier strata, unless, indeed, the strata were supposed to be formed exclusively within a moderate distance of the shore.

> We might imagine a series of strata to be successively laid down in a gentle slope approximately parallel to that of the ancient sea bottom, each terminating against this surface without being continued into the profounder depths beyond, and we might suppose the floor to be rising in the region of this accumulation at such a rate as to bring successive tracts, farther and farther from the ancient shore line, within limits of depth admitting of mechanical and organic deposition; but in such circumstances of formation these earlier strata, instead of extending, as they are believed to do, almost continuously over the whole ocean floor, would be seen to determinate at no great distance from the original shore line, but abutting against the bottom at the places where the depth had set a limit to their accumulation.

No hypothesis of a secular rising of the sea bottom, he therefore argued, could explain the formation of the Appalachian Paleozoic deposit. They indicated, rather, a long period of subsidence of the ocean floor, varied by many and long pauses of upward oscillations.

Agassiz, in reply, admitted the probable shallowness of the ocean in which the strata were deposited, and that during a local upheaval of the shore, the whole sea bottom was probably subsiding, the subsidence being due to shrinkage, caused by the cooling of the earth's crust. This view was accepted by Rogers as amounting to a virtual disclaiming of the theory as advanced.

The removal of B. F. Shumard as State geologist of Texas in 1860, as noted on page 487, was immediately followed by the appointment of

his successor, Dr. Francis Moore, "an honorable and cultured gentleman of much executive ability," a one-time newspaper editor, but, so far as can be learned, never a geologist.[a] In April, 1861, the survey was, however, suspended by an act of the legislature, and both Shumard and Moore requested to report on what had been accomplished. With this request neither party complied, Shumard going immediately to St. Louis, where he died in 1869, and Doctor Moore leaving for the north on the outbreak of the civil war, where he, too, died in 1864.

Work of Moore and Buckley in Texas, 1860–1864.

The notes of these short-lived organizations seem to have, in part at least, passed into the hands of S. B. Buckley, a botanical collector under the Shumard régime, who returned to Austin after the close of the war and succeeded in having himself appointed State geologist. In this capacity he issued one report, bearing date of 1866, and comprising some 80 octavo pages, dealing with generalities and matters pertaining to the agricultural resources of the State, but containing little or nothing of geological value and but few references to what had been done by his predecessors. Buckley's period of rule was short, coming to an end in 1867.

No attempt at resuscitation was made until 1870, when the governor, under authority from the legislature, appointed John W. Glenn State geologist. Glenn, however, found the position uncongenial and resigned the following year, to be succeeded in 1874 by Buckley once more. The latter held the office but two years, when the governor, becoming convinced (truthfully, it is to be feared) that the survey promised to be of no practical benefit to the State, vetoed the bill appropriating moneys for its continuation.

J. W. Glenn appointed State Geologist of Texas, 1870.

During this second term of office Buckley issued two reports, under dates of 1874 and 1876, respectively, comprising altogether some 220 pages. The first contained a brief history of the past surveys of the State and a somewhat partisan account of an unhappy disagreement

[a] AUSTIN, *November 12, 1860.*

MY DEAR M.: Your kind letter reached Austin during my absence from home, and I thank you for your friendly words. I returned yesterday from the Indian country, and only then found I had been superseded by Doctor Moore in the office I held. Houston had not even intimated to me that he intended my removal. So far as I can learn, the action of the governor has caused universal dissatisfaction. I am not even permitted to make out my own reports of more than two years' hard labor. I understand that my removal has been brought about mainly through testimonials furnished Moore by H. and H.

If I had had timely notice, so that I could have written my report, I should not have cared so much, but to be deprived of that privilege is doing me great injustice.

I have not made any plans for the future. When I have a little more leisure I will write you again, and then may furnish you with some geology that may interest you.

In haste, your friend,

B. F. SHUMARD.

which existed between Shumard and himself. Both the statements made and the manner in which they are presented are such as to prejudice the unbiased reader against Mr. Buckley, and this in particular when one reflects that there was no apparent occasion for the publication in an official report of matters of this nature. Buckley was replied to vigorously by A. R. Roessler, who had also been one of Shumard's assistants.

The main portion of both reports was given up to a discussion of economic problems, and little that was new geologically appeared. He noted the eruptive nature of Pilot Knob, but was unable to determine whether the period of eruption antedated the Cretaceous or not. Much space was devoted to a discussion of soils and crops, together with notes on the fauna and flora.

Hitchcock's Views on the Metamorphism of Conglomerates, 1861.

In his report on the geology of Massachusetts (1833), and again in 1835 and 1841, Dr. Edward Hitchcock called attention to the flattening and distortion of pebbles in a conglomerate near Newport, Rhode Island, as already noted. As time went on the importance of the subject, particularly in the light of subsequent discoveries, seems to have grown upon him, and in a paper in the American Journal of Science for 1861, and in his reports on the geology of Vermont for that same year, the ground is gone over in great detail and his gradually expanding views fully elaborated.

In his report of 1833 the conglomerates were described as composed of elongated rounded nodules of quartz rock passing into mica slate, with a cement of talcose slate, all with their longest diameters uniformly parallel, the entire mass, pebbles and all, being divided by fissures as perfect as if "cut through by the sword of some Titan." Later, while engaged in the work of the Vermont survey, he found analogous conglomerates along nearly the whole western side of the Green Mountains, and in 1859, in company with his son, C. H. Hitchcock, he again visited the Newport locality in search of facts to aid him in solving the Vermont problem. His results were given before the American Association for the Advancement of Science that same year, and the subject again brought before the Association by C. H. Hitchcock in 1860.

The facts brought out and presented showed the pebbles to be (1) much elongated in the direction of the strike of the beds; (2) that, while flattened, this feature was not so striking as their elongation; (3) that they were often indented by one being pressed into another; (4) that they were often bent, sometimes in two directions; and (5) that they were cut across by parallel joints, or fissures, at intervals of from a few inches to many feet. These facts led him to conclude that (1) the rock had once been a conglomerate of the usual character, and had undergone a metamorphosis whereby the cementing material had become crystalline and schistose and the pebbles elongated, and

(2) the pebbles themselves had been in a more or less plastic state; otherwise any attempt at change in form would result only in fracture and comminution. The clean manner in which the pebbles were cut by joints was thought also to indicate a condition of plasticity. The flattening and distorting force was thought to have operated laterally, and the jointing regarded as due to some polarizing force acting upon soft materials, a simple inspection of the rock in place being sufficient to satisfy anyone that no mechanical agency would alone be sufficient to produce the phenomena. Applying the same method of reasoning to the conglomerates of Vermont, he came to the conclusion that these, too, had undergone metamorphism, giving rise to schists and gneiss, and that, indeed, granites and syenites might result from the metamorphism of stratified rocks. The chemical details as worked out would naturally not hold in their entirety to-day, and of course the idea of a polarizing force would be no longer seriously considered; but the fact remains that this paper, as a whole, marks a long stride in advance along the line of metamorphism, and for its time was comparable in its importance with the later work of Lehmann on the crystalline schists of Saxony.[a]

FIG. 73.—Charles Henry Hitchcock.

Natural History Survey of Maine, 1861–62.

By an act of the legislature approved March 16, 1861, Ezekiel Holmes, of Winthrop, Maine, was commissioned, under the direction of the board of agriculture, to make a scientific survey of the State. C. H. Hitchcock, then of Amherst, Massachusetts, and a son of Dr. Edward Hitchcock, was commissioned geologist, while George L. Goodale served as botanist and chemist, C. Houghton as mineralogist, A. S. Packard, jr., as entomologist, and C. B. Fuller as marine zoologist. Others, including G. L. Vose and Dr. N. T. True, rendered assistance at various times.

Two brief seasons were devoted to field work, the results of which appeared in the reports of the board of agriculture for 1861–62, the strictly geological portions being limited to some six hundred and odd pages. The work done under these conditions was necessarily somewhat disconnected. Northern Maine was still practically a wilderness;

[a] The subject was in 1868 again taken up by Prof. G. L. Vose, whose conclusions, based on a study of conglomerates in the vicinity of the Rangeley Lakes, were largely confirmatory of those of the Hitchcocks. He was not, however, disposed to regard the pebbles as having been in a plastic state, but contended that under the forces that had there prevailed rigid pebbles might be bent and flattened in the manner described.

there were no maps and absolutely no railroads. A geological map in black and white was, however, prepared of the region north of Calais and the 45th parallel, and also one of the eastern portion of the State included between St. George and Belfast.

The fossiliferous rocks were noted as mostly Paleozoic and probably all lying below the Carboniferous series. The red sandstone of Perry, the problematic horizon of which had been discussed by Jackson and others, as previously noted in these pages, was regarded as "indisputably Devonian," this statement being based upon expressed opinions of Jackson, Rogers, Newberry, and Dawson. It was noted that the fossiliferous marine clays, which were regarded as of the same age as the similar deposits along the St. Lawrence and the Champlain valleys and referable to the Terrace period, sometimes underlay a coarse deposit referable to the unmodified drift. Without committing himself definitely on this point, Hitchcock suggested the possibility, therefore, of a recurrence of the drift agencies—that is, a period of second drift. This, so far as the present writer has information, is the first suggestion by an American of such a possibility. It seems, however, to have been quite lost sight of. (See also remarks of Edward Hitchcock, p. 462.)

The drift period itself, according to Hitchcock's view, was inaugurated by depression of this portion of the continent amounting to at least 5,000 feet below that of to-day. Subsequently the continent rose again gradually to its present altitude. It was during this period of depression and elevation that the drift deposits were formed through the conjoined agency of icebergs and glaciers. The various forms of modified drift he thought to have been produced largely by the aid of rivers and moving currents of water. These views were those very generally held at that date, though, naturally, they have been somewhat modified since.

The quartz rock in the vicinity of Rockland, Thomaston, and Camden was regarded as belonging to the Taconic period of Emmons, and the associated limestones were looked upon as contemporaneous with the Stockbridge limestones of Emmons or, what is the same thing, the Æolian limestones of the elder Hitchcock.

Dr. J. S. Newberry, in Notes on the Surface Geology of the Basin of the Great Lakes, after a review of the surface conditions as he saw them, came to the conclusion that at a period corresponding in climate, if not in time, with the Glacial epoch of the Old World, the lake region in common with all the northern portion of the American Continent was raised several thousand feet above the level of the sea. This was the "glacial period," during which the surface of the country was planed down and the deep fiords along the Atlantic coast formed. This was followed by a period of depression, when all the basin of the Great

Newberry's Views on Glaciation, 1862.

Lakes was flooded with fresh water, forming a vast inland sea, in which the laminated blue clays, the "oldest of our drift deposits," were precipitated. Subsequent to this deposit of blue clays "an immense quantity of gravel and bowlders was transported from the region north of the Great Lakes and scattered over a wide area south of them." This was due to floating ice and icebergs. The lake ridges (ancient beaches), described by Whittlesey, Newberry regarded as evidence that the water of the lakes remained for considerable intervals much higher than at present. These are practically the same views announced before the New York Lyceum in 1870 (p. 545).

Lesley on Mountain Structure, 1862.

In May, 1862, J. P. Lesley read a paper before the American Philosophical Society describing the structure of the Allegheny Mountains, in which he assumed that the rocks of the Blue Ridge Range, on the eastern side of the valley, were a prolongation of the Green Mountains of Vermont, and consisted, therefore, of the Quebec group, or Taconic System. In this he followed the Rogers Brothers, as he acknowledged. He accounted for the change in the drainage, as exhibited by the New River, which breaks into the Appalachians, as due to a structural change in the geology, most of the mountain valleys north of this being unbroken anticlines and synclines, while most of those south of it are monoclines bounded by immense faults or downthrows. The Appalachians of southern Virginia and eastern Tennessee are grouped in pairs by faults, the fracturing being in parallel strips from 5 to 6 miles wide, each strip being tilted easterly so that the upper edge of one strip, with its Carboniferous rocks, abuts against the bottom or Lower Silurian edge of the strip next to it. The Paleozoic zone, therefore, included between the Great Valley and the backbone escarpment, is occupied by as many pairs of parallel mountains as there are parallel faults, and as these faults lie in straight lines at nearly equal distances from one another the mountain ranges run with great uniformity side by side for 100 or 200 miles until cut off by cross faults, or by change in the courses of the principal faults.

J. P. Lesley on uplift and erosion, 1863.

In a paper before the American Philosophical Society the year following on a "remarkable coal mine or asphalt vein in the Coal Measures of Wood County, (West) Virginia," Lesley was led into a discussion of uplift and erosion, and expressed sundry ideas worthy of note.

Assuming that the valley cutting through this mine was one of erosion and had been carved out since the vein was filled, Lesley speculated on the time and causes of erosion and incidentally on the character of the original uplift. He rejected the idea of cataclysmic erosion dating back to the time of the uplift, as he did also that of the secularists, who regard the present face of the country as but the latest phase of

an infinite series of oceanic degradations, beginning with the uplift and still in progress. Instead, he adopted the supposition of a succession of denuding actions of unknown force and indefinite number. "A homogeneous element with sufficient force, acting either by one or by repeated blows," would bring about the present condition of affairs.

> No one will deny that water, if obtained in sufficient quantity at a sufficient velocity, would be such an agent. In the acknowledged instability of the crust of the earth, in its acknowledged less stability in ancient times than now, we find the possibility, nay, we feel the certainty, that the oceans have at times been launched across the continents, and we need nothing more to satisfy all the conditions for an explanation of Appalachian topography.

One great obstacle, Lesley thought, in the way of topographical science among geologists—

> has been an innocent ignorance of the titanic postulates upon the ground, and therefore an inability to reconstruct in imagination the awful vaults of rock which have been removed from over at least 50,000 square miles of the surface of the United States merely along the one belt of the Appalachian Mountains, between the coal area and the Blue Ridge range.

However this may have been, Lesley himself could not be accused of any such innocent ignorance and consequent impotency of imagination. Thus, when speculating on the character of the folds of the Appalachians, as controlled by the roughness of the old surface of the more or less disturbed and eroded sedimentaries and the thinness of the newer formations, whereby there was a tendency for more or less hitch and catch below and crack and shove above, he showed that such features were here reduced to a minimum, and hence probably the high anticlines were unbroken at the crest.

> As a whole, the plicating energy must have acted with a steady evenness of thrust, which carried up the anticlinal waves of the crust unbroken, and in some cases to a height of between 5 and 10 miles above the present surface level.

Truly a strange admixture of views. As a modern catastrophist he was equaled only by Clarence King.

It was the opinion of Rogers, it will be remembered, that the great amount of erosion which had manifestly taken place in the Pennsylvania Appalachians was cataclysmic, the consequence of a great rush of waters or body of water over the face of the continent at the time when the coal era was about to be terminated by the upheaval of the whole Appalachian belt of earth crust, when it was thrown into waves or folds. Lesley at first accepted this view and even as late as 1864 confessed himself as not entirely convinced that such a cataclysm was not necessary in order "to explain the earlier and perhaps the larger part of the whole phenomenon." He did not, however, accept Rogers's "pulsating planetary lava-nucleus" theory to account for the primary origin of the range, but felt that the force of lateral thrust caused by shrinkage from a cooling globe better accounted for the surface convolutions as he saw them.

Chester Averill, William More Gabb, William Ashburner, James Dwight Whitney, Charles F. Hoffman, Clarence King, William Henry Brewer.

MEMBERS OF THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF CALIFORNIA, 1860.

In 1860 J. D. Whitney was appointed State geologist of California and served until 1874, when the survey was discontinued. According to the original act, he was required to make an accurate and complete geological survey of the State and to furnish a report containing a full scientific description of its rocks, fossils, soils, and minerals, and of its botanical and zoological productions. W. H. Brewer was principal assistant in botany and agricultural geology, William Ashburner in mining, and W. M. Gabb, paleontologist. Clarence King also rendered assistance in a volunteer capacity.

Whitney's Geological Survey of California, 1860–1869.

The results of this survey are embodied in three volumes on geology and paleontology published by the State and two volumes on the auriferous gravels, published by the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard after Whitney's retirement. It was announced in the statement of progress for 1872–73 that a geological map of the whole State had been colored, but it seems never to have been published.

The first volume of Whitney's report of progress and a synopsis of field work from 1860 to 1864 appeared in 1865. This comprised a small quarto volume of 498 pages. The volume contained a great amount of descriptive matter relating to the areal geology of various parts of the State, particularly of the Coast Ranges and Sierra Nevada, with a chapter on the mining regions.

Whitney decided, from the discovery of a single shell in the rocks of Alcatraz Island, that the so-called San Francisco sandstone was of undoubted Cretaceous age. The serpentines of Mount Diablo and the San Francisco peninsula he considered as metamorphic sediments (sandstone)—a mistake which was later repeated by Becker in his volume on the quicksilver deposits of the Pacific slope.

Whitney was decidedly pessimistic regarding the probability of the occurrence of petroleum on the Pacific coast, and unhesitatingly discouraged the promoting of enterprises of this nature. With reference to the region south of the Bay of Monterey, he wrote:

> As the bituminous shales are everywhere turned up on edge and have no cover of impervious rock, the inference is unavoidable that flowing wells, or at least those delivering any considerable quantity of liquid petroleum, can not be expected to be got by boring to any depth. The probabilities, at least, are against it.

When one reflects that the output of the California fields in 1899 amounted to 2,677,875 barrels, he is led to question the infallibility of Whitney's judgment in these matters.

Whitney considered all those chains or ranges of mountains in California to belong to the Coast Ranges which had been uplifted since the deposition of the Cretaceous formation; those which were elevated before the Cretaceous as belonging to the Sierra Nevada. The slates of the western slope in Mariposa County were regarded as of Jurassic age, and the Calcareous slates of Plumas County as belonging to the

Triassic. The limestones in the Gray Mountains had been referred by Doctor Trask to the Carboniferous formation. With this reference Whitney agreed.

The peculiar dome-shaped concentric structure of the granite in the Sierras was dwelt upon with considerable detail, and the curved structure of the sheets regarded as having been produced by the contraction of the material while cooling or solidifying. The Yosemite Valley itself he thought to be due to a differential movement, the half dome seeming beyond a doubt to have been split asunder in the middle, one-half having gone down in what he calls "the wreck of matter and the crush of worlds." In other words, he regarded the valley as due to the downward drop of an enormous fault block.[a]

The first volume of the paleontological reports appeared in 1864. This comprised 243 pages, with 32 full-page plates of fossils, the Carboniferous and Jurassic being described by F. B. Meek, and the Cretaceous and Triassic by W. M. Gabb. Concerning the work thus far done, Whitney wrote:[b]

> Perhaps the most striking result of the survey is the proof we have obtained of the immense development of rocks, equivalent in age to the upper Trias of the Alps, and paleontologically closely allied to the limestones of Hallstadt and Aussee, and the St. Cassian beds, that extremely important and highly fossilliferous division of the Alpine Trias.

Further on he says:

> Enough (fossils), however, have been found to justify the assertion that the sedimentary portion of the great metalliferous belt of the Pacific coast of North America is chiefly made up of rocks of Jurassic and Triassic age. * * * While we are fully justified in saying that *a large portion of the auriferous rocks of California consist of metamorphic Triassic and Jurassic strata*, we have not a particle of evidence to uphold the theory * * * that all or even a portion are older than the Carboniferous. * * * We are able to state * * * that this metal (gold) occurs in no inconsiderable quantity in metamorphic rocks belonging as high up in series as the Cretaceous. (P. 261.)

Subsequent to this, apparently[c] W. P. Blake, as geologist of the California State Board of Agriculture, made a claim to having, in 1863, found on the American River a fossil ammonite, which he regarded as establishing the secondary age of the gold-bearing strata. It was claimed by Prof. W. H. Brewer, however, that Blake did not know for a certainty if the specimen was found in place or, indeed, if it were an ammonite or ceratite; also that the fossils were not found so early as the date claimed by Blake (1863). Brewer is very emphatic in his statements to the effect that Whitney was the first to announce

[a] Later investigators have been inclined to regard the valley as due merely to river erosion, facilitated by the vertical jointing of the rocks. (See H. W. Turner, Proc. California Academy of Sciences, Geology, I, No. 9, 1900.)

[b] American Journal of Science, XXXVIII, November, 1864, pp. 256–264.

[c] See American Journal of Science, XLII, 1886, p. 114.

JAMES RICHARDSON.

ALEXANDER MURRAY.

SIR WILLIAM LOGAN.

the Jura-Trias age of these rocks, and the extracts from the published reports seem to bear him out.

The second volume of the paleontological reports, as published in 1869, comprised 299 pages, with 36 full-page plates, and was given up wholly to descriptions of Tertiary and Cretaceous fossils by Gabb. In his introductory note Whitney reiterated his statement above quoted regarding the age of the gold-bearing rocks and the absence of rocks older than Carboniferous, not merely in the State, but west of the one hundred and sixteenth meridian.

As previously noted (p. 385), Logan, during his period of service as provincial geologist, submitted sixteen reports dealing mainly with stratigraphic and economic subjects. In 1863 he brought forward a long promised volume—The Geology of Canada—a large octavo, of 983 pages, accompanied by an atlas giving a colored geological map and sections.

Logan's Geology of Canada, 1863.

Logan was assisted during the early part of his work by Alexander Murray and James Richardson, geologists; E. Billings, paleontologist, and T. Sterry Hunt, chemist. Later Robert Bell, now (1904) acting director, and others of less prominence, were added to the force. A portion of the paleontology was assigned to James Hall, and the nomenclature adopted was essentially that of the New York survey.

The map accompanying the volume was beautifully executed in colors, and comprised all of the provinces southeast of the St. Lawrence as well as a narrow belt composed mainly of Laurentian, extending from Labrador southwesterly to the Great Lakes, and thence northwesterly to the ninety-sixth meridian. It included a considerable portion of the United States, data for which were supplied by Hall and other American geologists.

Overlying the graptolitic shales of the Utica and Hudson River formations in the vicinity of Quebec, Logan found a conformable series of sandstones, shales, and conglomerate limestones, which he considered, in spite of their position, as older than the Hudson River group formation and to which he applied, from their geographical position, the name of the Quebec group. This was again subdivided into an underlying green sandstone series called the Sillery formation, and an overlying Levis formation. These were supposed by both Logan and Billings to be mainly contemporaneous with the Calciferous and Chazy groups of the New York geologists, but more recent investigations by Selwyn and Ellis have shown that while the Levis beds are Calciferous in the lower parts, the Sillery is probably all Cambrian (Dana), the Quebec, as a whole, being a northern continuation of the Taconic series. By a singular error, to which Marcou was prompt to call attention, this Quebec group on the map referred

to above was made to include the Chazy and Calciferous formations below the Trenton.

It is worthy of note that, while Logan's successors have been invariably opposed to the idea of the origin of the drift and rock striations through a glacial ice sheet, Logan evidently committed himself to this theory. Concerning the origin of the lake basins of western Canada he writes:

> These great lake basins are depressions, not of geological structure, but of denudation, and the grooves on the surface rocks, which descend under their waters, appear to point to glacial action as one of the great causes which have produced these depressions.

Again, in a footnote on the same page, he quoted, with evident approval, the following:

> This hypothesis (i. e., the origin of the lake basins) points to a glacial period when the whole region was elevated far above its present level, and when the Laurentides, the Adirondacks, and the Green Mountains were lofty Alpine ranges, covered with perpetual snow from which great frozen rivers or glaciers extended over the plains below, producing by their movements the glacial drift and scooping out the river valleys and the basins of the lakes.

It was in this same report that Logan first noted the occurrence of a supposed fossil in the Laurentian of Canada, describing under the name of *Stromatopora rugosa* an aggregate of crystalline pyroxene and calcite found by Mr. John Mullen in one of the bands of limestone at the Grand Calumet. This was the so-called Eozoon of Dawson, referred to elsewhere.

Logan, for his time, possessed a very profound insight into petrographical problems, though he naturally regarded as traces of an original bedding what is now known to be, in part, at least, foliation due to dynamic causes. Thus, in his reports for 1853–1856, he wrote concerning the rocks of the Laurentian system:

> They are the most ancient yet known on the continent of America, and are supposed to be equivalent to the iron-bearing series of Scandinavia. Stretching on the north side of the St. Lawrence from Labrador to Lake Superior, they occupy by far the larger share of Canada, and they have been described in former reports as sedimentary deposits in an altered condition, consisting of gneiss interstratified with important bands of crystalline limestone (p. 7).

And again:

> The Laurentian series are altered sedimentary rocks.

The geology of the islands of Anticosti, Mingan, and the Magdalen River region was assigned by Logan to James Richardson, who made his report in 1857. The fossils collected were worked up by Billings, who considered the rocks of the Anticosti group to consist of beds of passage from the Lower to the Upper Silurian and synchronous with the Oneida conglomerate, the Medina sandstone, and the Clinton

group of the New York survey, and with the Caradoc formation of England.[a]

The possibility that the Laurentian system might not be a single unit was here again recognized by Logan in a supplementary note:

If, on exploration to the eastward of the Trembling Mountain, it should be further ascertained that the two inferior limestone bands of the Greenville series disappear on reaching the margin of the anorthosite, it may be considered as conclusive evidence of the existence in the Laurentian system of two immense sedimentary formations, the one superimposed unconformably on the other, with probably a great difference in time between them; and it will be an interesting subject of inquiry whether the intrusive rocks which have been found intersecting the lower division give any clue to events which may have happened in the interval.

Logan was born of Scottish parentage at Montreal in 1798, but his father shortly returning to Scotland, he received his early training, which was classical, in the High School and University of Edinburgh.

Sketch of Logan.

He showed no disposition toward scientific pursuits until chance led him to the keeping of accounts in the establishment of an uncle, who was interested in mining and copper smelting operations in Wales. Here he was attracted by the phenomena of the coal seams and devoted a large share of his spare time to their study.

In 1838 the death of his uncle caused him to give up his position in Wales, and in 1840 he returned to Canada. His first geological paper was on the character of the beds of clay immediately below the coal seams of South Wales. This was communicated to the Geological Society of London in 1840. In this he announced the invariable presence under the coal seams of beds of fire clay carrying Stigmaria. This he regarded as proving the origin of coal through plant growth in place—an opinion which was very generally accepted at that time.

When Logan began his geological work in Canada a large portion of the country was a wilderness, without roads, and there were no maps. Of the topography of the Gaspé district it is written:

Little was known of the region beside the coast line; of the geology, practically nothing. Settlements were few, confined almost exclusively to the coast, and made up chiefly of fishermen. There were no roads through the interior, most of which was, and indeed still is, a wilderness, inhabited by bears and other wild beasts, or at best only penetrated in certain regions by a few Indians or lumbermen. The courses of most of the streams were unknown and the mountains untraversed.

Living the life of a savage, sleeping on the beach in a blanket sack, with my feet to the fire, seldom taking my clothes off, eating salt pork and ship's biscuit, occasionally tormented by mosquitoes.

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[a] Prof. N. S. Shaler, in a paper before the Boston Society of Natural History, December 18, 1861, antagonized that view and argued that from the base of the level of the Canadian channel to the summit at the southwestern point of the island the beds were entirely Upper Silurian and synchronous with the Clinton and Niagara, of New York and elsewhere, though the fossils themselves might not be absolutely identified.

Such is the record Logan has left us of his Gaspé experience. From early dawn to dusk he paced or paddled, and yet his work was not finished, for while his Indians—often his sole companions—smoked their pipes around the evening fire he wrote his notes and platted the day's measurements.

Logan is represented to us as strong in body, of active mind, industrious, and doggedly persevering, painstaking, a lover of truth, generous, possessed of the keenest knowledge of human nature, sound of judgment, but always cautious in expressing an opinion.

During his twenty-seven years of office, sixteen reports were submitted, the first, that for the year 1843, appearing in the form of a pamphlet of 159 octavo pages. It contained remarks on the mode of making a geological survey and a short preliminary report containing general observations on the geology of the provinces, and adjacent portions of the United States, together with the Joggins section already mentioned.

FIG. 74.—Thomas Sterry Hunt.

Assisted by Mr. Alexander Murray, and later by the chemist, T. Sterry Hunt, Logan continued his work until 1869, when he resigned to be succeeded by Mr. Selwyn. His reports cover the geology of Ottawa, the Gaspé peninsula, the economic geology of the Lake Superior region, the geology of lower Canada with especial reference to the eastern townships, the region along the north coast of Lake Huron, the gold-bearing fields of the Chaudière region, and the western peninsula, also the region between the Ottawa, the St. Lawrence, and the Rideau. His most important publication was his geology of Canada, noticed above. His geological map, bearing date of 1866 and measuring 8 by 3½ feet, is said to have been the largest and most comprehensive that had appeared up to that time.

Under the directorship of Logan, Alexander Murray, assisted by James P. Howley, began work on the geology of Newfoundland in 1864, making a first brief report in May, 1866. The survey was continued until 1880, and a reprint of all the reports published in book form—an octavo volume of 536 pages—in 1881.

Work of Murray and Howley in Newfoundland, 1864.

The work as a whole consisted mainly of details of structure of the regions immediately along the coast, with notes on the mines. The various subdivisions of the formations adopted were naturally those of the Canadian survey, which were based to a considerable extent upon those of the New York survey.

Naturally, Murray's observations were limited mainly to a comparatively narrow belt along the coast. With the exception of the Glacial and post-Glacial material, no formations were found of later date than the Carboniferous. The succession of the Lower Silurian formations of the island from above downward he gave as follows: Sillery, Lauzon, Levis, Upper Calciferous, Lower Calciferous, Upper Potsdam, Lower Potsdam, and St. John's Group. The St. John's Group is now recognized as Middle Cambrian (?), while his Lower Potsdam is Lower Cambrian.

Before the beginning of Murray's work it had already been shown by Richardson, working under direction of Logan, that a trough of Lower Silurian rocks must underlie the northern part of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, gradually narrowing toward the Strait of Belle Isle, one side of the trough rising on the coast of Labrador, while the other formed the western shore of Newfoundland from Bonne Bay to Cape Norman. On each side of the Strait these rocks were found to rest on Laurentian gneiss, which was ascertained to extend from the neighborhood of Bonne Bay to within 12 or 15 miles of Hare Bay.

Murray's investigations proved that the Laurentian rocks spread in breadth to the Atlantic coast of the great northern peninsula of the island, and that the base of the Lower Silurian strata, sweeping around the northern extremity of the gneiss, comes upon the coast near Canada Bay, and again strikes into the land at Coney Arm in White Bay, where the Lower Silurian are overlaid by Upper Silurian, followed by rocks of Devonian age. Farther to the southeast the Laurentian and Silurian series were found to be partially and unconformably covered by rocks of Carboniferous age.

The report was accompanied by a colored geological map on ten sheets, on a scale of 25 miles to the inch.

As already noted, the Canadian geologists, with the exception of Logan, have never taken kindly to the idea of a glacial ice sheet, but have sought to account for the distribution of the drift, erosion, and allied or associated phenomena through other means.

Dawson's Views on Glaciation, 1864.

Thus, J. W. Dawson, in his address before the Natural History Society of Montreal in 1864, took occasion to combat vigorously the idea, on the ground that "it requires a series of suppositions unlikely in themselves and not warranted by facts;" that it seems physically impossible for a sheet of ice to move over an even surface, striating it in uniform directions over vast areas; that glaciers could never have transported the large bowlders and left them in the positions found, having no source of supply; that the peat deposits, fossils, etc., show that the sea at that period had much the same temperature as the present Arctic currents, and that the land was not covered by ice.

Dawson's Address Before the Natural History Society of Montreal, 1864.

In describing the northeasterly and southwesterly and northwesterly and southeasterly directions of the rock striæ, he announced that he had no hesitation in asserting that the force which produced the southwesterly striæ was "from the ocean toward the interior, against the slope of the St. Lawrence valley," and as he could not conceive of a glacier moving from the Atlantic up into the interior he considered this as at once disposing of the glacial theory. He conceived, rather, that a subsidence took place sufficient to convert all the plains of Canada, New York, and New England into sea. This, he felt, would determine the direction of the Arctic current which would move up this slope. He would account for the excavation of the basins of the Great Lakes in a similar way. Supposing the land submerged so that the Arctic current from the northeast should pour over the Laurentian rocks on the northern side of Lake Superior and Lake Huron, it would cut out the softer strata, forming the basins and drifting the material to the southwest.

The lower strata of this current would be directed through and between the Laurentide hills and the Adirondacks, and, flowing over the ridge of hard rock which connects them at the Thousand Isles, would cut out the basin of Lake Ontario and heap up at the same time the mass of bowlder clay intervening between Lake Ontario and Georgian Bay. Lake Erie, he thought, might have been cut by the flow of the upper layers of water over the middle Silurian escarpment, Lake Michigan being likewise due to this unequal erosion. The northwesterly and southeasterly striæ he conceived were produced by a return of the northeast-southwest current, obstructions causing it to flow along the valleys of Lake Champlain, the Connecticut, and the low country between Lake Ontario and Lake Huron. He would not wholly exclude the action of glaciers, but thought such were limited to the mountain tops. Old sea beaches, he thought, had been mistaken for moraines, and he found evidences of ocean breakers almost to the summits of the White Mountains. Lake basins and fiords in the northern latitudes are all due to current and wave action, the cold Arctic currents being appealed to rather than the warm surface currents. He also felt sure that the numerous indentations of the coast of the United States were due to the action of waves rather than of ice.

Pumpelly's Work in China, 1863-64.

In the autumn and winter of 1863–64 Raphael Pumpelly, of Rhode Island, was engaged by the Chinese Government to examine the coal fields west of Peking. Incidentally he made journeys in northern China and Mongolia. Subsequently, in 1864–65, he crossed into Siberia and journeyed overland to St. Petersburg. The results of his observations on the geology of the region were published in the Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge, 1866, forming a quarto pamphlet of 144 pages with 8

plates of sections, and a colored geological map, the latter confessedly hypothetical. This memoir, which antedated Richthofen's great work on China by some years, gave to the world the first authentic account of the geology of the region.

He showed that in the region extending from the twentieth to a little beyond the fortieth parallel and from near the one hundredth to about the one hundred and twenty-second meridian the oldest sedimentary rocks were Devonian limestones, which prevailed in some cases to the enormous thickness of 11,600 feet. Overlying this, through the greater part of the area, were the Chinese Coal Measures (Mesozoic), interrupted by bands of granitic and metamorphic rock of undetermined age. In the extreme northern part of this region was a comparatively small area of basaltic and trachytic rocks. The region immediately south of Peking, comprised principally within the provinces of Chihli, Nganhwui, Kiangsu, and Shantung, was colored, as occupied by post-Tertiary materials, with smaller areas of the same age along the Yangtse-Kiang and Hoangho rivers in the provinces of Hupeh, Sz'chuen, and Shensi.

Fig. 75.—Raphael Pumpelly.

Considerable attention was given to the post-Tertiary "Terrace" deposit, or loam, which he found in the valley of every tributary of the Yang Ho, and probably also of the Sankang Ho. This, which has since become more generally known as the Chinese loess, was described in considerable detail as to modes of occurrence, physical properties, and geological distribution. The material he regarded as having been deposited in a chain of lakes extending from Yenkingchau north-northwest of Peking to near Ninghia, in Kansuh, a distance of nearly 500 miles, the lake basins themselves being formed by the dislocations which gave rise to the plateau wall to the north, and being filled by sediments brought by the Yellow River.

The fossil plants brought by Pumpelly from the coal-bearing rocks were studied by Newberry and identified as of Mesozoic age.

George H. Cook, who was assistant geologist of New Jersey under the Kitchell survey (suspended in 1856), was appointed State geologist with the reorganization of the same survey in 1863, and continued to serve in this capacity until the time of his death in 1889. His first annual report, that for 1864, bearing the date of 1865, was a small pamphlet of but 20 pages, and contained a single-page colored geological map of the State, the second of its kind to be issued, the first having been by H. D. Rogers.

Cook's Survey of New Jersey, 1863–1889.

One of the first tasks which Doctor Cook imposed upon himself after his appointment was the preparation of a large octavo volume, accompanied by a portfolio of maps, setting forth the condition of the knowledge of geology of the State up to the date of publication (1868). In this work he gave a general summary of all his previous work, and upon it we will draw largely for other facts which may be given here.

Naturally the question of the age and stratigraphic position of the white limestone came up for discussion. He quoted the opinion of Rogers (p. 326), and found reason for differing with him. He wrote:

> In regard to the crystalline limestones he was mistaken. They are everywhere conformable to the gneiss and interstratified with it. His mistake is acknowledged by his former assistant, J. P. Lesley, in the American Journal of Science, LXXXIX, p. 221. The true position and identity in age of the crystalline limestone and gneiss was proved by Vanuxem and Keating, in the Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences in 1822, and this view has been sustained by all the observations of Doctor Kitchell and his assistants and can be easily verified by anyone who will visit the localities cited in this report.[a]

Cook was inclined to regard the magnetic iron ore as of sedimentary origin, deposited in beds just as were the gneiss and crystalline limestone, in this respect agreeing with Doctor Kitchell and disagreeing with H. D. Rogers.

As early as 1854 Cook had called attention to the gradual subsidence of the coast of New Jersey, and before his death was able to give absolute figures regarding the rate of depression.

Sketch of Cook.

Cook was born in Hanover, New Jersey, in 1818, and educated in the public schools of the State and the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, whence he graduated in 1839 with the degree of C. E. After graduation he remained at the Institute as tutor, adjunct professor, and finally full professor, until 1846, when he removed to Albany, New York, where he was engaged at first in business and latterly as professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, and finally principal of the Albany Academy.

In 1852 he was sent to Europe by the State authorities of New York to study the salt deposits, with a view of developing those of Onondaga County. In 1853 he accepted a call to the chair of chemistry and natural sciences in Rutgers College, New Jersey, retaining his connection with the institution during the remainder of his life, though after 1854 being actively connected with the State geological survey. In 1880, moreover, he was made director of the State agricultural experiment station, which, indeed, had been established largely through his efforts.

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[a] Studies by Mr. A. C. Spencer, of the United States Geological Survey, made during the season of 1904, point to an igneous origin for the gneiss. This view, of course, effectively disposes of the idea that the limestone is conformable with the gneiss and interstratified with it.

GEORGE HAMMELL COOK.

State Geologist of New Jersey.

A noble and unselfish man, who, as some one has expressed it, "went in and out of the houses of this State, making friends of every man, woman, and child he met." Farseeing, persistent, ever calm and judicious in his work, yet light hearted and cheerful among his friends—

his broad expanse of face, full of light, his eyes gleaming with kindliness, as well as with shrewdness, and often with a right-merry twinkle; his genial smile, his frank greeting, never marred by any hollow and flippant phrase of mere etiquette, but as honest as it is cordial; his sympathy, so responsive yet so genuine; his massive though quiet strength of purpose; and his self-contained, self-poised nature, all crowned with boundless hopefulness, united to make his very presence an inspiration and benediction.

In the author's memory there are two men among American geologists who stand out as devotees of science, yet entirely free from the narrowness of the specialist or the personal idiosyncrasies that so frequently mar the character of men of their class. These two men are George H. Cook and Edward Orton. They loved science for science sake, yet did not close their eyes to its economic bearing, nor call upon an overtaxed public to support them in the work they loved, regardless of its outcome. Never a minister of the gospel had the interests of his parishioners more at heart than these two men that of the public they served. For themselves they asked simply the privilege of doing the work and doing it to the best of their ability.

FIG. 76.—Benjamin Franklin Mudge.

B. F. Mudge, as State geologist, submitted his First Annual Report on the Geology of Kansas for the year 1864, in form of an octavo volume of 56 pages, in 1866. He announced the lowest geological formation of the State to be the upper portion of the Coal Measures, of which he gave a section in Leavenworth County. He accepted the identification of the Permian age of the fossils which had been described by Meek, Hayden, and Swallow, and noted the occurrence of the Triassic and probably the Jurassic also, in a belt of territory crossing the Republican and Smoky Hill valleys, and also the Cretaceous, the geographic limits of which had not been worked out. He regarded the drift and erratic bowlders as due to icebergs.

Work of B. F. Mudge in Kansas, in 1864.

Professor Mudge was born in Maine in 1817, and graduated at Wesleyan University, Connecticut, in 1840. After graduation he studied law and, being admitted to the bar, practiced his profession in Lynn, Massachusetts, until 1859. During 1859 and 1860 he was employed as chemist in the Chelsea, Massachusetts, and Breckinridge, Kentucky, oil refineries,

Sketch of Mudge.

and in 1861 he removed to what is now Kansas City, Kansas, where he engaged in teaching. Such a life would now be considered as little fitting a man for the profession of geology, yet in 1864, having by invitation delivered a course of lectures before the Kansas legislature upon the geological resources of the State, he was unanimously elected State geologist, a position which he, however, filled for but a single year, resigning to accept the professorship in natural history in the Agricultural College at Manhattan, where he remained until 1873. His resignation from this last position is stated to have been caused by disgust aroused at the political conditions in which the institution became involved and the assumption of its presidency by a well-known politician, with no qualifications whatever for the position.

Although by profession a lawyer, Mudge is stated to have been throughout his whole life deeply interested in natural sciences, and while in Lynn to have taken an active part in the organization of the Lynn Natural History Society. In Kansas his scientific work was largely in the line of exploration.

Arduous, intrepid, willingly undergoing hardships and dangers for the sake of science, he explored a very large part of Kansas when explorations meant real dangers and hardships of the most pronounced kind. As early as 1870 he made explorations in the extreme western part of the State in the study of its geology and paleontology, and for years afterwards nearly every summer found him in the midst of the Indian country, usually wholly without protection from the danger of hostile Indians, save such as his own rifle and revolver afforded. In the summer of 1874 he explored the whole length of the Smoky Hill River, an utterly trackless wild, infested by Indians, whose murderous depredations were visible on every side.

Mudge's bibliography is brief and the papers generally limited to but a few pages at most. His material he willingly put in the hands of others for publication, and Marsh, Cope, White, and Lesquereux profited thereby. It was during one of these earlier trips that he discovered the first specimen of Ichthyornis, which, coming into the hands of Marsh, did so much toward making the latter famous.

Mudge made the first geological map of the State (Kansas), which is fairly correct in its main features, save for the Lower Cretaceous, which he failed to recognize.

He mapped and described with tolerable accuracy and fullness the physical structures of the different Cretaceous and Tertiary horizons. Much, if not most, of the information thus given was based upon his patient researches in wagon or on foot. In general it may truthfully be said that his pioneer work in Kansas geology was important and extensive, though now largely superseded by more detailed and accurate studies. His work in life, however, has chiefly borne fruit as a teacher. He was widely known as an enthusiastic and able lecturer, and his courses were always in demand by the teachers and scientific men of the State. His quiet modesty and unselfishness disarmed all envy and jealousy. Of most charming personality, of wide culture, and unbounded enthusiasm, his teachings made an unusual impression upon all with whom he came in contact.

In 1866, G. C. Swallow, who succeeded B. F. Mudge as State geologist, issued a Preliminary Report of the Geological Survey of Kansas, in form of an octavo volume of 198 pages, including a report by Dr. Tiffin Sinks on the Climatology, and one by Dr. C. A. Logan on the Sanitary relations of the State. Maj. F. Hawn was assistant geologist.

Swallow's Geological Survey of Kansas, 1866.

Special attention was given to the eastern and central part of the State. He found rocks belonging to Quaternary, Tertiary, Cretaceous, Triassic (?), Permian, Lower Permian, and Carboniferous formations, the lowermost division being the Lower Carboniferous. The buff, mottled, and red sandstones underlying the Cretaceous were doubtfully referred to the Triassic from their resemblance to the foreign Triassic and the presence of a *Nucula* resembling the *Speciosa* of Munster from the Muschelkalk of Bindlock. The presence of Permian beds, it will be remembered, he had previously announced. The coal-bearing rocks he estimated at 2,000 feet in thickness and underlying an area of over 17,000 square miles. In these he announced twenty-two distinct and separate beds of coal, ranging in thickness from 1 to 7 feet.

FIG. 77.—George Clinton Swallow.

This work of Swallow in Kansas has been largely overlooked by recent workers. According to Keyes,[a] a large portion of it was not only good but marvelously well done for its day and the conditions under which it was accomplished. The historical importance of Swallow's work "lies in the fact that some of his geographic names applied to geologic terranes will have to stand as valid terms, although his correlations were often very bad."

Swallow, like Mudge, was born in Maine, but was of Norman-French descent. He studied the natural sciences under Parker Cleaveland, at Bowdoin College, graduating in 1843, and, after several years in educational work, accepted the chair of chemistry, geology, and mineralogy in the University of Missouri in Columbia. From 1856 to 1861, the date of the discontinuation of the survey, he served as geologist of Missouri, and in 1865 was appointed State geologist of Kansas, as elsewhere noted.

Sketch of Swallow.

He is represented to us as a large, fine-looking man, over 6 feet in height, and a very close observer of all natural phenomena. According to Professor Broadhead, "No other man during the same length of time has ever gone into a strange field, traversed the country, and published a volume all in a year and a half, as he did." Swallow was

[a] American Geologist, June, 1900, p. 347.

connected for a time (1867–1870) with mining operations in Montana, but his scientific field was limited wholly to Missouri and Kansas.

N. S. Shaler's Views on Continental Uplift, 1865.

At the December (1865) meeting of the Boston Society of Natural History, Dr. N. S. Shaler, then but twenty-four years of age and a graduate of the Lawrence Scientific School in Cambridge, made some interesting remarks on the elevation of continental masses. Referring to the assumptions of Charles Babbage and Sir John Herschel relative to the shifting of isothermal lines and consequent expansion and local uplift along lines of deposition, he went on to argue that for the same reason sea bottoms on which sedimentation was taking place would be areas of depression, since the curving must take place in the direction of greatest expansion. In like manner, uplifting would take place along lines of denudation. The intermediate point between the two zones of movement would naturally be the sea border, and hence here would occur the fracturing of the superincumbent strata and resultant volcanic phenomena. In this way, assuming the original nuclei of the continents, or points first elevated above sea level, to have been in the northern portion of the sphere, he thought it probable they would continue to grow by uplift southward in a succession of southwardly-pointed triangles.

Some six months later, in June, 1866, he read before the same society a paper on the formation of mountain chains, which is also of interest in this connection. Accepting the theory that the earth's mass consists of a solid nucleus, a hardened outer crust, and an intermediate zone of slight depth in a condition of imperfect igneous fusion, he argued, as in a previous paper, that while the continental folds were probably corrugations of the whole thickness of the crust the mountain chains were but folds of the outer portion caused by the contraction of the lower portions of this outer shell, the contraction in both cases being due to loss of heat. Further, the subsidence of the ocean's floors would, through producing fractures and dislocations along those lines, tend to promote the formation of mountain chains along and parallel with the sea borders.

Still again, in 1868, Shaler (having in the meantime been elected professor of geology in Harvard University) brought up before the Society the matter of the nature of the movements involved in the changes of level of shore lines, and this time with particular reference to changes coincident with or subsequent to the Glacial period. He showed that local phenomena of continental uplift or depression, as measured by the level of the sea at the shore line, might be variously modified by the position of the points of rotation, whether immediately at the shore line or at a greater or less distance, either seaward or inland. Of greater significance, however, were his remarks relative to the changes in level at the time of glaciation. Referring to

a previous paper, where he showed that a compound bar would, when heated, bend toward the side composed of the most expansive material, he compared such a bar to a portion of the earth's crust covered with several thousand feet of ice and snow. The effect of this blanket would be to cause the isothermal lines to move outward toward the surface, causing thus an expansion of that portion of the crust immediately beneath the ice. But the ice itself would partake very slightly, if at all, of this increased temperature, and, as in the case of the compound bar, the bending would take place in the direction of maximum expansion, i. e., in this particular case, downward. In this way, he suggested, the depression accompanying the period of maximum glaciation might be accounted for.

C. F. Hartt and Orestes St. John accompanied Agassiz in the capacity of geologists on the Thayer Expedition to Brazil during the years 1865–66. In 1867 Hartt made a second journey, spending several months on the coast, between Pernambuco and Rio, exploring more particularly the vicinity of Bahia and the islands and coral reefs of the Abrolhos.

C. F. Hartt's Work in Brazil, 1865-1867.

FIG. 78.—Charles Frederick Hartt.

The results of this and the previous expedition were published in book form in 1870, under the title of Geology and Physical Geography of Brazil. In this work the gneisses of the Province of Rio de Janeiro are regarded as metamorphosed or sedimentary deposits and of Azoic age. Their thickness he did not even estimate, recognizing the fact that their apparent enormous thickness was due to numerous reversed folds, so that one might travel for miles over their upturned edges, finding them always highly inclined and dipping in the same general direction.

Concerning the probable age of the metamorphic rocks succeeding the gneisses he found no proof, though it was suggested they might be Silurian or Devonian. South of Rio he found unmistakable Carboniferous rocks, including beds of bituminous coal, and in the province of Sergipe, underlying the Cretaceous, a thick series of red sandstones, referred to the Triassic. No Jurassic was recognized.

Marine Cretaceous beds of undetermined extent were found north of the Abrolhos Islands, which were conformably overlaid by clays and ferruginous sandstone, referred to the Tertiary. Overlying this along the whole coast he found an immense sheet of structureless clays, gravels, and bowlder deposits, which he believed, with Agassiz, to have been the work of glacial ice, though he noted that nowhere

had there been seen either polished or striated rocks, such as are almost constant accompaniments of glaciation elsewhere. It is almost needless to add that this view is no longer held by anyone, the bowlders supposed to have been erratics being merely bowlders of decomposition and their distribution the work of gravity and water.

In 1870 Hartt went again to Brazil, and in 1875, while professor of geology at Cornell University, was appointed chief of the geological commission of that country, with Richard Rathbun as assistant. He died in 1878.

H. E. Eames's Work in Minnesota, 1865-66.

An act of the State legislature of Minnesota approved March 2, 1865, provided for the establishment of a State geological survey, but one which proved short-lived. Henry E. Eames was made State geologist, and during his term of office made two brief reports of 23 and 58 pages respectively, both bearing on the title page the date of 1866. The work was almost wholly of an economic nature.

Hilgard's Views on the Drift, 1866.

Eugene W. Hilgard, in an article in the American Journal of Science for 1866, pointed out the great difference in the character of the drift in the north and northeast and that of the west (Mississippi Valley). He felt that the glacial theory alone, as then understood, could not account for these deposits north of the Ohio any more than for the Osage sand delta south of it. Though referring to Agassiz's observation regarding "the melting snow of the declining glacial epoch" and its instrumentality in forming river terraces, he adopted as more plausible the idea first announced by Toumey to the effect that the southern drift may have been formed in consequence of the sudden melting of the northern glaciers, "such as would have resulted from a first rapid depression of so large a mass of ice below the snow line." At first the flood action would be violent, producing the deep erosion of the underlying formations and the transportation and redeposition in mass of their materials. After the first rush, the stratified deposits would be formed, mingled with more or less bowlder material from floating ice. The influx of cold water from the north would, he thought, account for the absence of signs of life in the deposits. The "grandly simple means of a single elevation and redepression in the northern latitudes * * * will equally satisfy the conditions required for the formation of the western and southern drift."

Kerr's Geological Work in North Carolina, 1866-1869.

W. C. Kerr, who succeeded Professor Emmons as State geologist of North Carolina, received his commission on April 4, 1866, and continued in service until the time of his death, in 1885. His first Report of Progress, submitted in January, 1867, was an octavo volume of 56 pages, in which the purposes of the survey were set forth and a summary of the geology of the western part of the State given, so far as known. The rocks of

this western area were regarded as belonging "to the most ancient of the Azoic series," and to have been above sea level since very ancient times. As with his predecessors, Kerr was troubled to account for the drift, noting that while it occurred far beyond the limits usually ascribed to glacial action, yet there were "numerous phenomena which have no other plausible explanation."

Kerr's second report, submitted in 1869, was of equal brevity, but naturally contained more of the results of the author's personal observations. He noted that the mountains, plateaus, and valleys of the French Broad and Lower Catawba areas owed "their existence and all the details of their form and position to the action of water, the basins * * * being * * * without exception, valleys of erosion, having in no case an anticlinal or synclinal origin."

The entire western portion of the State he considered as consisting of four groups or formations, first, the—

Cherokee slates along the Smoky Mountains, on the northwest border, consisting of clay slates and shales, sandstones, grits, conglomerates, and limestones; second, the Buncombe group, occupying the larger portion of the great transmontane plateau between the Blue Ridge and Smoky Mountains, and consisting of gneissic and granitoid rocks; third, the Linville slates, a narrow belt stretching for the most part along the Blue Ridge and composed, like the first group, of semimetamorphic argillaceous slates and shales, sandstones, limestone, and gneissoid grits; fourth, the Piedmont group, gneissic and granitoid.

He noted further that these four groups constituted two recurrences of the same rocks, in the same order, recalling Rogers's theory of reduplication by folding and overturns, as worked out in Pennsylvania.

John L. Le Conte, a cousin of the Joseph Le Conte, elsewhere noted, is known to science rather through his entomological than geological writings. Five papers are credited to his pen by Darton in his Catalogue and Index of North American Geology. Of these, the most important and the only one that need here be considered is one on the geology of the survey for the extension of the Union Pacific Railroad from the Smoky Hill River, Kansas, to the Rio Grande. He made a detailed study of the coal beds, and on the basis of their molluscan remains maintained that such were of Cretaceous age rather than Tertiary, as claimed by Lesquereux. His reasoning as to the relative value of botanical and molluscan remains for determining the age of beds is worthy of note. He wrote: "The difference between the plants of our early Cretaceous and those of the European middle Tertiary could be ascertained only after much discussion and by the stratigraphy of the region, and we have no right from a few resemblances in vegetables to infer the synchronism either of the western lignite beds with each other, or any of them with the European Eocene and Miocene, except when supported by paleontological evidence derived from animal remains." In this most geologists will now agree with him.

John L. Le Conte's Union Pacific Railroad Survey, 1867.

Le Conte's views, as shown in this report, concerning the general development of the western portion of the continent, indicated an ability to deal with the larger problems of geology in a philosophical and highly satisfactory manner, and it is perhaps to be regretted that he should have allowed himself to be drawn off into other pursuits. As noted, this paper was the most important of his geological writings, as it was also the last.

White' Survey of Iowa, 1866–1869.

The second geological survey of Iowa was inaugurated in April, 1866, with Dr. Charles A. White as director, and Orestes St. John, principal geological assistant. The survey continued to the end of 1869, results being published in the form of two royal octavo volumes, comprising all told some 443 pages, with a colored geological map of the entire State.

As Hall and Whitney had devoted a large portion of their attention during the previous survey to the eastern part of the State, so White devoted himself mainly to an investigation of the phenomena of the western part. He found reason, as noted in his introductory letter to the governor, to discourage all explorations for mineral oils or precious metals in the State, and also pointed out the hazard of exploring for coal beyond the northern and eastern boundaries of the coal field as designated in his geological map. He also showed that, though iron ore of a good quality had frequently been found in the State, the deposits were always limited. In all of these points he was correct.

Considerable attention was given to the peat deposits and an estimate made of the amount of material within the State limits which could be utilized for fuel purposes should occasion demand.

Among the phenomena of lesser importance he called attention to the moving of the bowlders on the shores of lakes and piling them into wall-like masses through the expansive action of the freezing water. The so-called Bluff deposit he considered to be of more recent origin than the drift, and referred it to the earliest part of the so-called Terrace epoch, the material composing it having originated by fluviatile erosion immediately upon the close of the Glacial epoch, being afterwards deposited as a lacustral sediment in the broad depression in the surface of the drift left by the retreating glaciers. He differed entirely with Whitney as to the cause of the absence of trees in the prairie region, and felt no hesitation in declaring that the real cause of the existence of the prairies in Iowa was the recurrence of the annual fires.

He divided the formations of the State into Azoic, Lower Silurian, Upper Silurian and Devonian, Carboniferous, and Cretaceous systems, and regarded the Sioux Falls quartzite, with its associated pipestone, as belonging to the Azoic. The Potsdam sandstone, which he found reaching a thickness in the State of about 300 feet, he thought to be probably overlying this Sioux quartzite. This view is generally held to-day.

White regarded it as evident that there was no hope of profitable lead mining within the limits of the State in the Lower Magnesian limestone, in this agreeing with Whitney (p. 468). For the so-called Hudson River shales of Hall he substituted the name of Maquoketa shales. All the Devonian rocks of the State he referred to the Hamilton period.

He found a strict conformability in all the rocks from the Potsdam sandstones to the Keokuk limestone, inclusive, but between this last and the rocks of the Coal Measures an unconformability and also one between the St. Louis limestone and the older formations of the sub-Cretaceous group. Instead of there being only one formation of Carboniferous limestone, as had been generally supposed, White claimed to have found two, each possessing similar lithological but different paleontological characteristics, the one overlying and the other underlying the coal-producing strata.

The various folds found in the strata of the Iowa rocks he regarded as all having taken place subsequent to the deposition of the latest strata of Carboniferous age and before any of those of Cretaceous age were deposited.

The gypsum deposits were thought to be presumably of Mesozoic age and as having originated through chemical precipitation in comparatively still waters which were saturated with sulphate of lime and destitute of life. The fact that these deposits contained no fossils rendered the exact determination of their geological age a matter of some difficulty. It is therefore well to note that Keyes in his report in 1895 refers them to the upper part of the Mesozoic the Cretaceous.[a]

White, it should be noted, had in 1860[b] described in considerable detail the rocks and their included fossils in the vicinity of Burlington, Iowa. He identified here eight beds, the lower six of which he regarded as the equivalent of, though not necessarily contemporaneous with, the Chemung of New York. The two upper beds, which were of limestone, he regarded as Carboniferous, though he remarked that the line drawn between the two formations was largely imaginary, indicating merely the limit where the Devonian species ceased to predominate and upward from which the Carboniferous species flourished in full force.

It was suggested that the Devonian species might have originated at the east and migrated westward during the time that the bottom of the Chemung sea was gradually sinking and receiving the deposits forming the Old Red sandstone, thus making the Devonian rocks equivalent to the New York Chemung and contemporaneous, in part at least, with the Old Red Sandstone of the Catskill Mountains.[c]

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[a] Report of the State Geological Survey of Iowa, VII, 1895.

[b] Boston Journal of Natural History, VIII, 1859–1863, pp. 205–235.

[c] All of the six beds then supposed to be Devonian are now commonly regarded as belonging to the basal Carboniferous (Kinderhook).

Later (in 1866) Niles and Wachsmuth studied the upper beds, which had become known as the Burlington limestone, and were led by the crinoidal remains to regard the two divisions as two independent formations, which they designated as the Lower and Upper Burlington, a subdivision which still holds.

Safford's final report on the geology of Tennessee did not appear until 1869, having been delayed by the incidents of the civil war. It was accompanied by a colored geological map of the State, and a geological section, uncolored, extending from the Unaka chain on the east of the Mississippi, and giving, on the whole, a very comprehensive and easily understood idea of the physical geography and geology of the State, as well as its economic resources. He here called attention to the frequent recurrence of the same formation, or series of formations, met with in crossing East Tennessee, and accounted for the phenomena on the theory that the bed had been thrown into a series of parallel and closely compressed and overturned folds, the crests of which had been subsequently denuded (see p. 488).

Safford's Final Report on the Geology of Tennessee, 1869.

FIG. 79.—Charles Abiather White, Rush Emery, and Orestes St. John.

Although on his map a section of the Ocoee conglomerate was put down as belonging at the top of the Azoic series, in his chapter on the Potsdam group it was stated that the Ocoee conglomerate and slates, Chilhowee sandstones, and Knox group of shales, dolomites, and limestones might be regarded as a formation which corresponds to Dana's Potsdam period, and that it was not easy to separate, lithologically, the Ocoee subgroup from the Chilhowee, as they often run into each other.

The main bulk of the report was given up to a discussion of the distribution, lithological nature, and characteristic fossils of the various formations. He was disposed to regard the Porter's Creek group

of the Tertiary as distinct from the Orange sand, this latter name having been originally provisionally applied by him to a series of strata which he regarded as, for the most part, equivalent to Hilgard's northern lignitic. The general grouping of the formations, from the Cretaceous upward, was essentially the same as had been given by him in a previous paper in the American Journal of Science (1864), and which is as follows, beginning at the bottom:

1. Coffee sand	Cretaceous.
2. Green sand or the shell bed	Cretaceous.
3. Ripley group (provisional)	Cretaceous.
4. Porter's Creek group (provisional)	Tertiary (?)
5. Orange sand or Lagrange group	Tertiary.
6. Bluff lignite (provisional)	Tertiary (?)
7. Bluff gravel	Post-Tertiary.
8. Bluff loam	Post-Tertiary.
9. Bottom alluvium	Modern.

Fifteen new species of invertebrate fossils were described. The work does not seem to have attracted much attention at the time, and was given but a half-page review in the American Journal of Science for that year. In this, attention was merely called to the fact that Safford differed with Hilgard on the question of the age of the Orange sand.

Hilgard's Work in Louisiana, 1869.

In 1869 E. W. Hilgard, acting under the auspices of the New Orleans Academy of Sciences, made a reconnaissance of Louisiana, a summary of the results of which was published in the American Journal of Science for 1869. The expense of the trip was paid partly by subscription and partly by an appropriation by the State Board of Immigration, and the time limited to thirty days. The journey (some 625 miles) was made mainly on horseback, passing Petite Anse and New Iberia on the Têche by way of Opelousas to Bayou Chicot; thence to the Calcasieu River, down that stream to Lake Charles and the sulphur and petroleum wells, on the West Fork of the Calcasieu River; thence north to Sabine Town, Texas; thence by way of Many to Mansfield, Louisiana; thence, crossing Red River at Coushatta Chute landing to the salines on Saline Bayou, and thence, by way of Winnfield and Harrisonburg on the Ouachita River, where the expedition terminated. Among the more striking results announced was the fact that the Gulf coast has in late Quaternary times suffered a depression to the extent of at least 900 feet, and during the Terrace epoch a contrary motion to the extent of about half that amount. The occurrence of sulphur and gypsum beds was also noted. The various formations were described as: The Port Hudson group, the Orange sand formation, the Grand Gulf formation, the Vicksburg group, and the Mansfield group.

In 1869 the geological survey of Michigan, which had been brought to a close in 1861 by the outbreak of the civil war, was resuscitated

through an act of the legislature, establishing a board of survey, consisting of the governor of the State, the president of the board of education, and the superintendent of public instruction, with power to select geologists, disburse the money appropriated, and perform other necessary acts. Under this law Prof. Alexander Winchell was again made director, and undertook himself the investigation of the Lower Peninsula, with the assistance of his brother N. H. Winchell, M. W. Harrington, E. A. Strong, A. M. Wadsworth, C. B. Headley, A. O. Currier, and J. H. Emerson. Later (1873–1876), after Winchell's retirement, C. Rominger was appointed by the board to work on the Lower Peninsula also.

Winchell's Survey of Michigan, 1869.

To Maj. T. B. Brooks, as a State geologist, was assigned the survey of the iron regions; to Raphael Pumpelly that of the copper regions of the Upper Peninsula, and to Carl Rominger a study of the Paleozoic rocks and their associated fossils. Brooks's report, submitted in 1873 and forming part one of the first volume of the reports of this survey, was written with the idea of making it "as complete a manual as possible of information relating to the finding, extracting, transporting, and smelting of the iron ores of the Lake Superior region." With this in view, he presented in the order here given, first, an historical sketch of the discovery and development of the iron mines; second, the geology of the Upper Peninsula, including the lithology; third, the geology of the Marquette iron region; fourth, the geology of the Menominee iron region; fifth, the Lake Gogebic and Montreal River iron ridge; sixth, a chapter on exploration and prospecting for ore; and seventh, the magnetism of rocks and use of the magnetic needle in exploring, concluding with chapters on the method and cost of mining specular and magnetic ores and the chemical composition of the ores.

The lithological work on the rocks of the region was performed by A. A. Julian, of New York, his report forming the second volume (298 pages) of the survey.

Brooks's work contained scarcely anything of a speculative nature and but little as to the origin of the ores themselves. With reference to the association of magnetic and specular ores, he wrote:

Brooks's Work.

> If we suppose all our ores to have been once magnetic, and that the red specular was first derived from the magnetite and the hydrated oxide (soft hematites) in turn from it, we have an hypothesis which best explains many facts and will be of use to the explorer.

Again, with reference to the ore of the Negaunee district:

> If we suppose tepid alkaline waters to have permeated this formation and to have dissolved out the greater portion of the siliceous matter, leaving the iron oxide in an hydrated earthy condition, we would have the essential character exhibited by this formation as developed on the New England, Saginaw range, and, as will be seen afterward, at the Lake Superior mine. This is offered not so much as an hypothesis to account for the difference as to illustrate the facts observed.

This view, so modestly put, contains in it, however, the germ of the conclusions arrived at by Van Hise some twenty-five years later.[a]

He noted the monoclinal character of the deposit at the Washington mine property in the Marquette region, and described the ore of the Lake Superior specular and hematite workings and the Barnum mine as occupying the position of "the frustum of a hollow cone lying with its axis horizontal and its small end toward the east," which had been cut in two by a horizontal plane representing the surface of the ground.

Other points, which it is well to note, since Rominger in his later report had occasion to disagree with him, are his regarding the ores of the Cascade Range as the equivalent of the Michigan and magnetic ores of the Mishigami district and as older than any of the iron beds in the Republic Mountain series; and, second, the Felch Mountain ore deposit as belonging to the lower quartzite, the ore itself resting immediately upon and being bounded on the south by hornblendic, micaceous, and gneissic rocks which are undoubtedly Laurentian. Subsequent studies by Wadsworth, Van Hise, and others have shown him to be substantially correct in both of these conclusions.

FIG. 80.—Thomas Benton Brooks.

Ill health prevented Brooks from carrying out his work in as thorough a manner as he wished, and his letter of transmittal was written from London, he having gone abroad to recuperate.

Brooks, as may readily be inferred, was an eminently practical man. Indeed, his entire training was of a practical nature, consisting of two years at the School of Engineering of Union College and a single course of lectures on geology under Lesley at the University of Pennsylvania. His early work was in connection with land surveys, but after his retirement from the Army in the fall of 1864 he served a year on the geological survey of New Jersey under Cook, and then in 1865 became vice-president and general manager of the Iron Cliff mine, near Negaunee, in the Marquette district of Michigan. Here he began that geological work upon which is mainly based his reputation. The difficulties which he encountered were such as can be scarcely comprehended by those who have not visited the region. The country was, much of it, heavily forested and swampy as well. Outcrops were few and perhaps wholly obscured by the drift or by undergrowth. There were no maps.

Sketch of Brooks.

[a] Monograph No. XXVIII, U. S. Geological Survey, 1897.

or, at best, the very poor ones furnished by the Land Office, no railroads, and transportation was limited to canoes and pack animals. There were few prospect holes and fewer developed mines. To these difficulties were added the complications due to repeated folding and squeezing which the beds had undergone. Yet Brooks, by his persistency and originality in methods, succeeded in producing a work of value as a scientific production as well as of the greatest use to the prospector—a rare combination, indeed—and a work which has been superseded only by one that it took twenty years of study by an able corps of geologists and a hundredfold better facilities to produce.

Brooks devised the dial compass and adapted the dip needle to the purposes of the prospector. Persistent and determined to succeed in spite of the poverty of appropriations, he expended over $2,000 of his own means and, worst of all, sapped his own vitality in the work to the extent that he became a confirmed invalid before reaching middle age.

As already intimated, his health gave out in 1873 and he sought relief abroad, residing in London and Dresden, where his reports were completed. After his return to this country in 1876, he resided at Monroe and Newburgh, New York, and after 1883, during the winters, at Bainbridge, Georgia, living the life of a country gentleman and farmer.

Pumpelly's Work in Michigan, 1869-1873.

Pumpelly's work in the copper district is of interest on account of his theories regarding the origin of the copper and the age and lithological nature of the copper-bearing rocks. The conclusions at which he arrived were as follows:

First, the cupriferous series was formed before the tilting of the Huronian beds upon which it rests conformably, and consequently before the elevation of the great Azoic area, whose existence during the Potsdam period predetermined the Silurian basins of Michigan and Lake Superior. Second, after the elevation of these rocks and after they had assumed their essential lithological characteristics, came the deposition of the sandstone and its accompanying shales, as products of the erosion of these older rocks, and containing fossils which show them to belong to the Lower Silurian, though it is still uncertain whether they should be referred to the Potsdam, Calciferous, or Chazy.

A chapter was given on the paragenesis of copper and its associates. With reference to these subjects he wrote:

It is still an open question whether the trap which formed the parent rock of the melaphyr was an eruptive or a purely metamorphic rock. If it was eruptive, it was spread over the bottom of the sea in beds of great regularity and with intervals which were occupied by the deposition of the beds of conglomerate and sandstones. It should seem probable that the copper in the melaphyrs was derived by concentration from the whole thickness of the sedimentary members of the group, including the thousands of feet of sandstones, conglomerates, and shales which overlie the melaphyrs, and including melaphyrs also.

The translocation he regarded as having been initiated by the sulphate of copper resulting from the oxidation of the sulphide, but as

this salt must have been soon decomposed by the abundant acid carbonate of lime, he could not suppose it to have been effectual in the final concentration of the large deposits, and he thought it more probable that this last was accomplished by the more permanent solution of carbonate and silicate of copper.

Pumpelly was assisted by A. R. Marvine, L. P. Emerson, and S. B. Ladd.

C. Rominger's Work in Michigan, 1873–1876.

Rominger's report on the Paleozoic rocks of the Upper Peninsula formed part 3 of the third volume of the Survey reports (1873). His second appeared in 1876, forming one of the four large octavo volumes of the Survey, comprising altogether some 386 pages, with 55 plates of fossils, and a colored geological map of the area surveyed. The geological portion contains a record of the characteristic rocks, their geographical distribution, and the fossils they contain. It is to be noted that Rominger showed a disposition to disagree in many of his conclusions with Winchell, Brooks, and others who had preceded him.

The presence of large bowlders in the midst or on top of well-stratified drift layers he conceived to be due to the transportation of the material by means of swimming icebergs during periods of flood. In this he agreed, substantially, with Dawson, of the Canadian Survey. The dolomites of the Ida quarries, which Winchell identified as belonging with the Onondaga salt group (Upper Silurian), he considered as Upper Helderberg (Middle Devonian), and he stated that the mapping by Winchell of Upper Helderberg rocks throughout a great portion of Cass, Van Buren, and all over Berrien County, was an error. He also differed with Winchell regarding the stratigraphic position of the Hamilton rocks of Big Traverse Bay. Winchell's Huron shales he considered from paleontological evidence, to be identical with the Cuyahoga shales of the Ohio geologists, and, therefore, belonging to the lower part of the Carboniferous rather than the Upper Devonian. He also accused Winchell of a peculiar stratigraphic blunder in preparing a section west of Flat Rock:

> Unfortunately this section is laid across a synclinal undulation of the formation, and begins at one end with the same rock beds (Marshall sandstone), which on the other end are found very near the base. Under the impression that he was all the while descending, he stands again on the horizon from which he started.

The salt brines of the State, according to Rominger, are derived from rocks of the Waverly group, and not from those of a higher horizon, which Winchell had designated as the Michigan salt group.

Rominger also made reports on soils, building stones, and slate quarries, and on the Ontonagon silver mining district. What is perhaps the most valuable part of the report is that relating to the fossil corals, which was, for its time, unsurpassed.

Subsequently (1881) Rominger, still acting as a State geologist (1878-1880), issued a report on the Upper Peninsula, which dealt almost entirely with the economic problems of the iron region.

He regarded the region about Marquette as—

> a synclinal trough of granite which, by the upheaval of its northern and southern margins, caused the inclosure of the incumbent sedimentary strata between its walls and their simultaneous uplift and corrugations into parallel folds by the lateral pressure from its rising and approaching edges.

Concerning the origin of the iron ores of the Upper Peninsula, he wrote:

> These ore deposits are not regular sedimentary layers originally formed of iron oxide in a state of purity, but are evidently the product of decomposition of the impurer mixed ferruginous ledges by percolating water, leaching out the siliceous matter and replacing it by the deposition of oxide of iron held in solution.

This view is not greatly different from the conclusion reached by Brooks, as already noted, and subsequently by Van Hise.

FIG. 81.—Carl Rominger.

His views as to the origin of serpentinous rocks were not at all clear. Writing with particular reference to those of Presque Isle, he remarked that they occur—

> generally in bulky, nonstratified masses which, if they ever originated from mechanical sedimentary deposits, are by chemical action so completely transformed as to efface all traces of their former detrital structure. They resemble volcanic eruptive rocks forced to the surface in a soft, plastic condition, and most likely heat was one of the prime agents in their formation, or else transformation, in combination with aqueous vapors.

Rominger, in his first report, that on the Paleozoic rocks of the copper district, took the ground that the Silurian age of the Lake Superior sandstone was unequivocally proved by its stratigraphical position. This is the view now generally held, though the Potsdam period, to which the beds are referred, is now considered as the upper part of the Cambrian instead of the Lower Silurian, as at that date.

Sketch of Rominger.

Rominger's career, like that of Lesquereux and others that might be mentioned, offers an interesting illustration of the difficulties with which the early naturalists had to contend, particularly when foreigners and but little acquainted with the language of their adopted country.

Born in Wurtemberg, he came to America in 1848 on account of revolutionary disturbances, and without previous preparation. Though trained as a physician and geologist, yet his poor command of English he felt excluded him from associating with scientific men, and, being without financial resources, he established himself as a physi-

cian in Cincinnati, a city containing a large German population, Here he remained for twenty-five years, improving himself in the language and devoting what time could be spared from his professional duties to the study of paleontology and geology. In 1870, through the influence of James Hall and others, he was appointed one of the geologists of the Michigan survey under Winchell, ultimately himself becoming director, in which position he remained until 1883, when, under a new administration, he was removed to make room for another.

His bibliography, although not numerous, is important, particularly that relating to paleontological matters. It had been his intention to continue his work on the fossil corals, but the political changes above mentioned prevented. The edition of his work issued by the State being insufficient to supply the demand, Rominger had printed 250 copies at a personal expense of $4.75 each, hoping to be able to sell them at least for the same figure. But this proved impossible, and he suffered a direct loss thereby of not less than $800.

A second geological survey of Ohio was inaugurated in 1869, and J. S. Newberry appointed chief geologist. This survey was continued in operation until 1878, when it was discontinued, owing to a disagreement between Dr. Newberry and the legislature (see p. 481), by withholding the appropriations.

Newberry Survey of Ohio, 1869–1878.

During the period of its existence two annual reports and four volumes of a final report were published, the latest bearing on the title-page the date of 1882. Of these the first volume was given up to geology,[a] the second and third to paleontology, and the fourth to zoology and botany. The first volume was, however, issued in two parts, of which Part I only was strictly geological, and Part II paleontological. A third paleontological volume to be devoted to the Carboniferous flora was projected but never appeared, owing to failure of the legislature to make the necessary appropriations.

Newberry's principal assistants in 1869 were E. B. Andrews, Edward Orton (who afterwards became State geologist), and John H. Klippart. In 1870 the force was increased by the employment of T. G. Wormley as chemist, and G. K. Gilbert, M. C. Read, Henry Newton, and W. B. Potter as local assistants. As one of the results of their investigations it was announced that the so-called Cliff limestone had been resolved into seven distinct formations belonging to the two great geological systems—the Devonian and Upper Silurian. The discovery of Oriskany sandstone in the northwest quarter of the State was announced and the Carboniferous age of the rocks of the Waverly group thought to have been established on paleontological evidence. This has, however, been since shown to be erroneous.

[a] An edition of 2,000 copies of this report was printed in the German language, as were also the annual reports of Rogers's Survey of Pennsylvania.

Beginning with the later Tertiary times, the following sequence of events was established:

(*a*) In the Miocene and Pliocene epochs a continent several hundred feet lower than now, the ocean reaching to Louisville and Iowa, with a subtropical climate prevailing over the lake region, the climate of Greenland and Alaska being as mild as that of southern Ohio is now, while herds of gigantic mammals ranged over the plains.

(*b*) A preglacial epoch of gradual continental elevation which culminated in the glacial epoch, when the climate of Ohio was similar to that of Greenland at present, and glaciers covered a large part of the surface down to the parallel of forty degrees.

(*c*) This period was followed by another interval of continental subsidence characterized by a warmer climate and melting of the glaciers and by inland fresh-water seas filling the lake basin, and in which were deposited the Erie and Champlain clays, sands, and bowlders.

(*d*) Another epoch of elevation which is still in progress.

Much attention was given to economic geology and the study of the coal beds. From analyses it was shown that the change from woody tissues to peat or lignite, and thence to bituminous and anthracite coal and plumbago consisted in the evolution of a portion of the carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, leaving a constantly increasing percentage of carbon behind. This evolution Newberry conceived to be due to the disturbances which resulted in the uplifting of the mountain chains and metamorphosed the included rocks.

The coal beds of Ohio, it should be noted, were considered as always having been separated from those of Illinois by the Cincinnati anticline. This Cincinnati uplift or arch was, in the report for 1869, regarded as having formed a land surface over a considerable portion of its length at least during the earlier and probably throughout all the Devonian ages. Later, in discussing the work of Orton in Adams County, Newberry wrote:

> Here we have an indubitable record of the elevation of the Cincinnati arch between the Upper and Lower Silurian ages, and proof that it is far older than the Appalachian system, with which it has been commonly associated.

The carbonaceous matter of the Huron shales was suggested as probably due to an abundance of seaweeds which flourished in a kind of Saragossa sea which occupied that region during the period of deposition.

The petroleum and gas filling the cavities and interstices in the sandstones and conglomerates in the Oil Creek region were regarded as not indigenous to those rocks, but rather as originating in the lower-lying Huronian shales, from whence they had been forced upward by hydrostatic pressure.

The dolomitic character of the rocks of the Clinton, Niagara, and Water-lime series was ascribed to "a vital rather than a chemical or

physical cause," and the occurrence of a large percentage of magnesia in the hard parts of some groups of marine invertebrates, as the Millipores, cited as a possible explanation of the origin of the rock, in this following a suggestion made by Dana in the report of the Wilkes Exploring Expedition.

The sheet of clay and bowlders which was found directly overlying the polished surface of the rocks over so large a part of the State, and which is now known as till and bowlder clay, was described under the name of glacial drift, while the loose bowlders which are indiscriminately scattered over the State, frequently resting on the fine stratified clays, were known under the name of "iceberg drift."

Newberry conceived that, during the latter part of the glacial period, a great inland sea of fresh water filled the basins before occupied by ice, the northern shore of which was formed by the ice wall at the foot of the glacier. The mud which was brought into this lake through the grinding action of the glacier and there deposited formed the so-called Erie clays.

FIG. 82.—Charles Whittlesey.

For the rocks of the so-called *blue limestone* series of the early geological surveys he adopted the name Cincinnati group, as first applied by Meek and Worthen. The gypsum of the Salina group was regarded as precipitated in continuous sheets and not to have resulted from a change in the ordinary limestones by sulphuric acid, as had been claimed for the gypsum beds of New York. This is the view now commonly accepted.

It appears that Colonel Whittlesey was an aspirant for the position of State geologist at the time of Newberry's appointment, and to judge from the tone of an article by Newberry published in the Cincinnati Commercial,[a] adopted rather unfair means to throw discredit upon the latter's work. In his reply Newberry was very bitter, stating that whatever may have been his own qualifications for the work, Whittlesey was too old and in too poor health to do good work, and also that he was not a good geologist; that, further, he held to certain geological heresies which would impair his work; that he believed in the mineral origin of coal, and that the brown hematite ores of the Alleghenies were interstratified with the limestones instead of being mere pockets. He further claimed that Whittlesey was no paleontologist, and without paleontology no man could be a good geologist. As an illustration of his deficiency in this respect, Newberry referred to his (Whittlesey's) paper on the

The Newberry-Whittlesey Controversy, 1870.

[a] March 28, 1870.

Equivalency of the Rocks of Northeastern Ohio, in which he identified certain rocks as equivalent with the Chemung, Portage, and Hamilton groups, of New York, on paleontological grounds, whereas in fact every one of the twelve species of fossils on which this identification was based was wrongly named, the fossils actually being wholly of Carboniferous age.

Andrews's Views on the Glacial Drift, 1869.

Dr. E. Andrews, who was one of Newberry's assistants on the Ohio geological survey, in the American Journal of Science for 1869, wrote on the western bowlder drift, and took the ground that the fresh-water submergence which deposited the loess was not a continuation of the drift action, but was in that region separated from it by a tranquil period during which the rivers were down within their banks. As a whole, the western drift was, he thought—

> beyond all question a stratified water deposit. A study of the cliffs eroded by the lakes, showing both modified and unmodified drift, has obliged those western geologists most familiar with the sections to abandon the glacial theory and admit that the bowlder drift of this region is altogether an aqueous deposit, though the waters floated vast quantities of ice.

He described the occurrence of bowlders of loose gravel, sometimes 3 feet in diameter, in the clay passed through in digging the tunnel under the lake for the Chicago waterworks extension. Such he regarded as masses of frozen gravel dropped from floating ice. With reference to the gravel deposits on the peninsula between Green Bay and Lake Michigan, covering an area of 4,000 square miles, he wrote:

> The stratified character of the gravel * * * is on the whole too evident to admit of any possible doubt. * * * It would seem to be an unavoidable inference that our drift of this region not only came from the north, but it came in a vast sweep of water deep enough to cover gravel hills more than 800 feet high, and with velocity enough to throw such coarse material into lofty steeps and summits.

Again, concerning the absence of drift on the north slope of the Laurentian hills and the scratched and "pounded" aspect of the region, he wrote:

> We seem, therefore, to have testimony that the drift action for a thousand miles east and west along the Laurentian crest and to an unknown distance north of it was too violent to admit of drift deposits, even the bowlders being swept off.

The finer character of the material in northern and central Illinois he thought to be due to the less violent rush of the waters. These waters he imagined to have been drawn off suddenly after the deposition of the Orange loam, thus accounting for the absence of beach lines.

These views are not quite those of Newberry himself, as expressed in a paper before the New York Lyceum in 1870. From facts observed in the basin of the Great Lakes and the Valley of the Mississippi, he

argued that, synchronously with the glacial epoch of Europe, the northern half of North America had a climate comparable with that of Greenland, and that, as a result, glaciers were formed, the direction of flow of which corresponded in a general way with the present drainage channels. The Lower Mississippi he looked upon as a "half-drowned river"—that is, one with its lower channel deeply submerged and silted up, an unmistakable proof that at that period the country stood at a considerably greater elevation than at present.

Newberry's Views on the Drift, 1870.

The trough of the Mississippi, to his mind, was simply a valley of erosion which, since the close of the Carboniferous period, had been traversed by a river which drained the area of the northern Mississippi, the Ohio, and the Tennessee, and, since the Miocene period, the Missouri, Arkansas, and the Red rivers as well. Through alternate elevation and depression the mouth of the stream had varied its position from time to time to the amount of a thousand miles, the final long-continued depression being the primary cause of the climatic amelioration which brought the glacial period to an end.

The fine blue-gray and highly plastic so-called Erie clays and their accompanying sands and bowlders were to him due to floating icebergs during a period of continental depression and great inland seas, deposited, in fact, just as similar materials are conceived as now being scattered over the sea bottoms about Newfoundland.

> If we restore in imagination this inland sea, which we have proved once filled the basin of the lakes, gradually displacing the retreating glaciers, we are inevitably led to a time in the history of this region when the southern shore of this sea was formed by the highlands of Ohio, etc., the northern shore a wall of ice resting on the hills of crystalline and trappean rocks about Lake Superior and Lake Huron.
>
> From this ice wall masses must from time to time have been detached, just as they are now detached from the Humboldt glacier, and floated off southward with the current, bearing in their grasp sand, gravel, and bowlders—whatever composed the beach from which they sailed. Five hundred miles south they grounded upon the southern shore—the highlands of now western New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, or the shallows of the prairie region of Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa. There melting away and depositing their entire loads, as I have sometimes seen them, a thousand or more bowlders on a few acres, resting on the Erie clays and looking in the distance like flocks of sheep, or dropping here and there a stone and floating on east or west till wholly dissipated.

The loess, as one would naturally expect from the foregoing, was looked upon as the finer sediment deposited in the quiet waters of one of these inland seas, to which the icebergs had no access. The lake basins, with the exception of that of Lake Superior, which is a synclinal trough, were regarded as excavated by glacial action and once much deeper than now, having become partially filled with drift deposits as they gradually emerged. Temporary pauses in the period of uplift would give time for wave action, and thus would be formed the terraces and ancient beaches so commonly found in the lake regions.

Newberry was succeeded as State geologist by Edward Orton, who had previously acted as chief assistant. During Orton's administration certain "pardonable errors in identification," which left the stratigraphy of the coal series of Ohio in an almost hopeless tangle, were corrected. He showed the stratigraphical order of the lower Coal Measures of Ohio to be completely in harmony with that of Pennsylvania and that the entire series could be traced from the eastern margin of the State clear across the same to Kentucky. This is regarded by White, Orton's biographer, as the masterpiece of Doctor Orton's purely geological work, although his contributions to the geology of petroleum and natural gas in the sixth volume, 1888, are of almost equal importance.

Orton's Appointment as State Geologist, 1882.

Orton's work during his whole life was largely of an economic character, the more important and comprehensive publications being Volumes V (1884) and VI (1888) on the Economic Geology of Ohio, his Report on Petroleum and Gas in Ohio (1890), and the Report on the Occurrence of Petroleum, Natural Gas, and Asphalt Rock in Western Kentucky (1891). He also had an important paper on the Trenton limestone as a source of petroleum and inflammable gas in Ohio and Indiana, in the Eighth Annual Report of the U. S. Geological Survey (1886–87). Aside from his record as president of the university and a teacher, Orton will be best remembered for his work on the subjects of gas and petroleum, although in his report on the third geological district he makes important observations on the Cincinnati uplift or axis, showing it to have been a slow and gradual formation resulting in a gentle flexure in the earth's crust involving the Lower and Upper Silurian and, to some extent, the Devonian formations of the State. In his own words, his conclusions were as follows:

> First, the Cincinnati axis in southern Ohio was raised above the sea at the end of the blue limestone period, or certainly early in the history of the Clinton epoch. Second, it underwent various oscillations, but the elevatory movements succeeded those of depression. Third, the rate of movement was exceedingly slow.

His views on the glacial period, expressed briefly and in his own words, were as follows:

> The following threefold divisions of glacial time may be considered as demonstrated: First, an age of general elevation of northern land accompanied by intense cold and the formation of extensive continental glaciers. Second, a general depression of the land with the return of a milder climate. Third, a partial reelevation of the land and a partial return of the cold climate, producing local glaciers and icebergs.

Orton was born in Delaware County, New York, and educated at Hamilton College, graduating in 1850. He subsequently studied at Harvard and then entered the Andover Theological Seminary, being licensed to preach in 1855, and soon after ordained as pastor of the Presbyterian Church at Downsville, Delaware County, New York. He resigned this position in order that he might accept that

EDWARD ORTON.

Professor of Geology, Ohio State University, and State Geologist of Ohio.

of professor of natural sciences in the New York State Normal School at Albany. Becoming convinced, however, that his gradually changing views on religious matters were such that he could not conscientiously continue to hold this position, he resigned it, and accepted the principalship of an academy at Chester, in Orange County, the same State.

Sketch of Orton.

In 1865 he became principal of the preparatory department of Antioch College in Ohio, then professor of natural sciences, and afterwards president of the same institution.

His active work as a geologist received its first recognition in 1869, when he was appointed Newberry's assistant. In 1873 he was made president of the new Agricultural and Mechanical College, founded under the Morrill act, and also took charge of the chair of geology in the same institution. Under his efficient administration, which lasted until 1881, the institution prospered and finally developed into the Ohio State University.

In 1882, after his voluntary retirement from the State University, the geological survey was organized and Orton made State geologist, a position he continued to hold until the time of his death in 1899.

Orton belonged to the generation beginning work immediately after the civil war and, according to his biographer, always leaned toward the application of the science to the benefit of his fellow men. "He was painstaking and exact in observation, scrupulous in statement, cautious in speculation." He was one of the first to recognize the possibility of the exhaustion of the supply of petroleum and natural gas, and to issue appeals to the people of Ohio, urging care in husbanding their resources. But these were not received in the spirit in which they were offered, and he had the melancholy satisfaction of seeing his forebodings justified by the event.

By those who knew him Orton will be remembered as always a man of perfect courtesy, dignified, a little stately, and never effusive. His life was full of considerate and helpful kindness—modest and retiring to an unusual degree, and yet one of the few men to whom honors come notwithstanding. In 1891 he suffered from a paralytic stroke which cost him the entire loss of the use of the left hand, yet he continued to teach and to work until almost the last hour of his life. For eight years he had looked upon death as a thing momentarily to be expected. He met it bravely, cheerfully, and fearlessly on October 10, 1899.

In 1869 the fourth attempt at a systematic geological survey of Indiana was made, the appointment as State geologist going this time to E. T. Cox, heretofore known to geological fame only through his work while assistant to Owen in Kentucky and Arkansas in 1856–1860.

Annual reports were issued for each of the ten years which marked the life of this survey. Those of 1869 and 1872 were accompanied

by county maps, though no geological map of the State in its entirety was furnished. A colored section across the State from Greencastle to Terre Haute accompanied the report for 1869.

Cox was assisted during the entire or a part of the time by Frank H. Bradley, Rufus Haymond, G. M. Levette, B. C. Hobbs, R. B. Warder, W. W. Borden, M. N. Elrod, John Collett, and E. S. McIntire, the fossil flora being described by Leo Lesquereux and the fauna of Wyandotte Cave by E. D. Cope. Zoological and botanical subjects were treated by D. S. Jordan, J. M. Coulter, and J. Schenk.

Cox's Survey of Indiana, 1869–1879.

These reports as a whole contained little new or impressive. In the eighth, which was the most comprehensive thus far issued, Cox himself called attention to the fact that the geological history of the State "appears tame and devoid of the marvelous interest which attaches to many other regions, and that there is not a single true fault or upward or downward break or displacement of the strata thus far discovered." The oldest rocks of the State were found in the southern portion, extending from the Ohio River near the mouth of Fourteen Mile Creek to the eastern boundary line. These are the so-called Hudson River rocks of Hall, which Cox correlated with Safford's Nashville group, and which Worthen and Meek had included under the name of Cincinnati group. He regarded the Silurian strata as uplifted, not by a local disturbance, but "by an elevating force that acted very slowly and extending over the entire central area of the United States." The seat of greatest force, he thought, however, was not limited to southwestern Ohio, but was to be looked for in Kentucky.

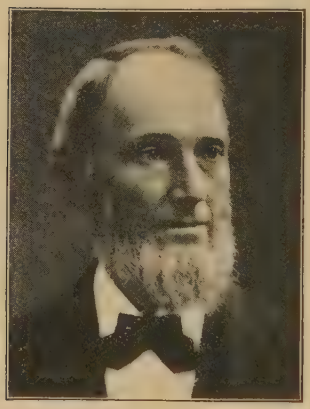

FIG. 83.—Edward Travers Cox.

Cox accepted the general theory of glacial drift as at present understood, and conceived that the climatic changes might be due to the relative position of land and water, possibly a change in the course of the Gulf Stream. He could find no evidence of a subsidence of the land to terminate the glacial period, nor could he find in Ohio, Indiana, or Illinois anything to militate against the commencement of a glacial period in Tertiary times and its continuation—

until brought to a close by its own erosive force, aided by atmospheric and meteorological conditions. By these combined agencies acting through time the mountain home of the glacier was cut down and a general leveling of the land took place.

This suggestion that the glacial epoch worked out its own destruction through a process of leveling, whereby the altitudes which gave it birth were so far reduced that glaciers could no longer exist, is unique and, so far as the present writer is aware, original with Cox.

Upon the recommendation of Logan, Dr. A. R. C. Selwyn, an Englishman, for several years connected with the geological survey of Great Britain under De la Beche, and from 1852 until 1869 director of the geological survey of Victoria, Australia, was, upon the retirement of the first named, made director of the geological survey of Canada. In this capacity Selwyn served for twenty-five years, or until 1894. He was assisted by H. H. Ami, Elkanah Billings, and J. F. Whiteaves, paleontologists; Robert Bell, George M. Dawson, James Richardson, and J. B. Tyrrell, geologists, and B. J. Harrington and T. Sterry Hunt, chemists. With this efficient corps the work of the survey was pushed vigorously, but, extending as it did beyond the time limits laid down for this sketch, it can be touched upon but briefly.

Survey of Canada under Selwyn, 1869–1894.

FIG. 84.—Alfred Richard Cecil Selwyn.

During the period of his administration twenty large annual reports were issued and nine volumes on paleontology and paleobotany. The work of the survey was pushed westward as far as British Columbia, and though ever with economic ends in view, much was accomplished in the way of pure science. The gold fields of Nova Scotia were investigated and the silver deposits of Thunder Bay, on Lake Superior. The stratigraphic problems involved in Logan's "Quebec group" also received attention. His aim from the start, as stated by one of his biographers, was to make the survey an eminently practical department in which the records of the mines and mineral statistics should be kept for the use of both the Parliament and the public.

Selwyn is pictured to us as a scholar of rare ability, social, amiable, and chivalrous in private life, but a strict disciplinarian; tall, graceful, quick, and alert, of a rather highstrung and nervous disposition, and with a keen and observant eye. His bibliography consists mainly of short papers and summaries published in connection with his official reports.

CHAPTER VII.

THE ERA OF NATIONAL SURVEYS OR FIFTH ERA OF STATE SURVEYS, 1870–1879.

The period of the civil war had brought to light a considerable number of men for whom the piping times of peace, even when varied by Indian outbreaks in the West, afforded insufficient opportunities. They were men in whom the times had developed a power of organization and command. They were, moreover, men of courage to the point of daring. It was but natural, therefore, particularly when the necessity for military routes in the West and public land questions were taken into consideration, that such should turn their attention toward western exploration. Further, the surveys made in the third decade, in connection with routes for the Pacific railroads, and the work done by Evans, Hayden, and Meek in the Bad Lands of the Missouri, had whetted the desires of numerous investigators. Willing workers were abundant and Congress not difficult to persuade into granting the necessary funds. Hence expedition after expedition was organized and sent out, some purely military, some military and geographic, with geology only incidental, and others for the avowed purpose of geological research.

Under such conditions was inaugurated the work which culminated, in 1879, in the organization of the present U. S. Geological Survey, which, for breadth of scope and financial resources, is without counterpart in the world's history of science.

The more important of the expeditions above referred to, as will be seen, were Hayden's Geological Surveys of the Territories; King's Geological Survey of the Fortieth Parallel; Powell's Surveys of the Grand Canyon of the Colorado and adjacent regions; and Wheeler's Geographical Surveys West of the One-hundredth Meridian.

These expeditions demanded men in the prime of life and bodily vigor -men who could endure exposure and fatigue and, if necessary, face danger. It is a natural consequence that there should be found among the workers many names and faces which have not heretofore appeared in our chronicles. Among those who appear now, if not for the first time, at least for the first time prominently, mention may be made of C. E. Dutton, S. F. Emmons, G. K. Gilbert, Arnold Hague, W. H. Holmes, Clarence King, O. C. Marsh, A. R. Marvine, A. C. Peale, J. W. Powell, I. C. Russell, Orestes St. John, J. J. Stevenson, and R. P. Whitfield.

Although this was a period of great activity on the part of the General Government, State and provincial governments were by no means quiescent. Important work was being done by T. C. Chamberlin in Wisconsin, J. W. Dawson in Nova Scotia, W. C. Kerr in North Carolina, Eugene A. Smith in Alabama, and J. D. Whitney in California. There were also organized a second geological survey of Pennsylvania, with J. P. Lesley at its head, and a geological and natural history survey of Minnesota, under N. H. Winchell. Both of these last-named organizations continued their work beyond the period of the limit set for this history. An attempt at establishing a geological survey of Georgia in 1874 resulted in the appointment of George Little as State geologist and the subsequent issuance of two reports comprising altogether but 52 pages.

FIG. 85.—George Little.

In 1870 (?) John Murrish was appointed by Governor Lucius Fairchild, of Wisconsin, commissioner of the survey of the lead district of that State. Murrish was, according to his own statement, "a practical man" and had served an apprenticeship in the mines of Cornwall, going through the regular course of practical training for a miner's occupation and a miner's life. Under these conditions, it is perhaps scarcely just to compare his writings with those of men who have had better opportunities and training. Nevertheless, as he had to do with the survey of an important mining region, it is impossible to ignore the work here.

Murrish's Work in Wisconsin, 1870.

Under the title of Report of the Geological Survey of the Lead Regions, Murrish published his observations in the form of a pamphlet of 65 pages, in which he set forth his views of the various geological phenomena. He thought to have discovered that the lead-bearing fissures were grouped into ranges, the various ranges forming themselves into four well-defined belts running parallel to each other. The lead veins, according to his theories, occurred along the elevation of the land running in a generally north-and-south direction, the elevation itself being "a line of physical disturbance." Concerning the character of this physical disturbance he was not perfectly clear, but he did not regard it as due to an active volcanic disturbance nor earthquakes in the ordinary meaning of the terms.

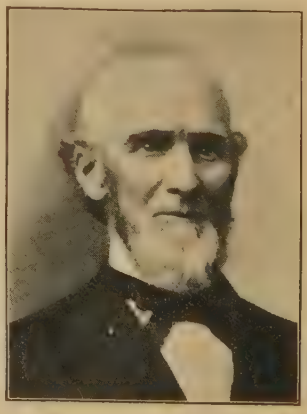

FIG. 86.—John Murrish.

He described sink holes and what are evidently stylolites, the true character of which he did not recognize, but regarded as doubtless due to the same physical disturbances. The elevation referred to and the belts of mineral land in the district were formed, he conceived, from groups of fissures or faults in the Plutonic and Azoic rocks beneath, which were themselves produced by mechanical forces evidently generated by internal heat. Water entering between the beds would percolate downward through these lines of fracture, where it would come in contact with intensely heated matter under a pressure of several hundred feet of overlying rock. If the temperature was sufficient the water would be converted into steam or elastic vapor, which might possess sufficient mechanical power to bring about the elevation. During the early formation of the stratified rocks, particularly the Potsdam sandstone, the resistance to this expansive force would be comparatively little, since vent for the steam would be easily found through the loosely accumulated sand; but as layer after layer was added to the strata and the more compact limestone began to form and harden above it, resistance would increase until to overcome it a general lifting of the strata would take place, by which escape would be effected through fissures in the rock along the line of those original faults in the Plutonic rocks below.

A microscopic examination of the sand grains from the disintegrated Potsdam sandstone having revealed the crystalline nature of the granules, due, as we now know, to the deposition of interstitial silica, he conceived, as did Whitney (p. 469), that the entire deposit was of chemical origin.

> Supposing Iceland should be submerged to a considerable depth beneath the ocean, and those plains situated about 30 miles from that noted volcano Hecla, known now to be full of heated springs, steaming fissures, and boiling geysers, whose waters hold a large amount of silica in solution that is now being deposited on the surface around those places, were pouring their waters into the ocean above, should we not have there on a small scale what perhaps existed on a very large scale during our sandstone formation?

Perhaps so. Who shall say?

Like many men of slight training, Murrish failed to give proper weight to the evidence gathered and was led into many errors, the most serious of which was that of assuming that the Lower Magnesian limestone might prove to be an ore-bearing stratum—this in spite of the opinion to the contrary held by Hall, Whitney, and others.

Marsh's Scientific Expedition, 1870.

During the summer of 1870 O. C. Marsh, professor of paleontology in Yale College, began a series of scientific expeditions into the western part of the United States, having for his primary object the collection of vertebrate fossil remains. The results of these expeditions soon placed Marsh among the leading vertebrate paleontologists of the world.

The Middle West, it should be remembered, was at that time an almost unknown territory, traversed by but a single railroad (the Union Pacific), and much of it rendered unsafe for the white man through roving bands of Indians, necessitating military escort in many instances.

The first expedition explored the Pliocene deposits of Nebraska, the Miocene of northern Colorado, and the Eocene of the Bridger Basin in Wyoming and the Uinta Basin of Utah. These expeditions were supported largely at Professor Marsh's private expense, until the organization in 1879 of the U. S. Geological Survey under Powell, shortly after which Marsh was appointed a United States paleontologist, though still drawing upon his own resources when necessary or when, in his opinion, it became advisable in order that new discoveries might become immediately available.

Under these joint agencies there was brought together the mass of material now forming the vertebrate collections at Yale University and the extensive Marsh collection in the National Museum in Washington, which has formed the basis for the numerous monographs and papers included in Marsh's extensive bibliography.

FIG. 87.—Othniel Charles Marsh.

The most noted of his early discoveries was that of the toothed birds, Odontornithes (Hesperornis and Ichthyornis), which formed the basis of a monograph published in 1880. Based on later discoveries were his monographs on the Dinocerata and the extraordinary dinosauria, of which the Anchisaurus, Brontosaurus, Laosaurus, Ceratosaurus, Camptosaurus, Stegosaurus, Claosaurus, and Triceratops are the best known representatives.

Marsh's connection with the United States Survey continued up to the time of his death, which took place in March, 1899, and much of his work lay beyond the time limits of this history.

Hager's Work in Missouri, 1870.

In 1870 again the legislature of Missouri passed an act for the establishment of a mining bureau, the board of control of which was to be composed of the governor and nine members, one from each Congressional district. Upon this board was conferred the power of appointing a State geologist, the choice for which fell upon Albert Hager, of Vermont.

Hager's term of service was, however, short, and but one report of progress published, owing to a disagreement with the board. This report dealt largely with the condition of the survey at the time he took charge. It would appear that, since the suspension of Swallow's

survey in 1861, the collections and other materials, the property of the survey, had been stored in the University building at Columbia, which was at one time in the possession of armed troops, and the materials suffered accordingly, as would naturally be expected. He found, however, reports of B. F. Shumard made during the work of Swallow's survey, in a fairly complete condition. These were on the counties of Crawford, Clark, Cape Girardeau, Phelps, Ste. Genevieve, Ozark, Douglas, Perry, Jefferson, Laclede, Pulaski, and Wright. The reports of Swallow and Meek were also in a satisfactory condition. It is stated, too, that he obtained much material relating to the former surveys from Shumard and Swallow, with apparently the intention of editing their notes and publishing them. So far as known, however, nothing was done, and on March 18 the law governing the bureau was amended. Dr. J. G. Norwood, who with Dr. C. M. Litton had been one of Hager's assistants, remained temporarily in charge of the affairs of the survey from September 1, 1871, until November of the same year, when R. Pumpelly was placed at the head of the organization. Norwood, during his brief period of authority, was assisted by G. C. Broadhead and C. M. Litton.

Under the management of Pumpelly there were issued in 1873 two volumes of reports, the first a royal octavo of 325 pages which contained all of the "previously unpublished material" that had been transmitted to him by earlier workers on the geological survey of Missouri. This comprised the reports of Broadhead, Meek, and Shumard, and contained eight geological maps of counties and numerous sections.

Pumpelly's Survey of Missouri, 1871.

In this same year there was published, also under the supervision of Pumpelly, a preliminary report on the iron ores and coal fields, forming a volume of 440 pages and 190 illustrations in the text, with a large folio atlas of 15 sheets. Pumpelly was assisted in the preparation of this work by G. C. Broadhead, W. B. Potter, Adolph Schmidt, and C. J. Norwood as geologists; and Regis Chauvenet, chemist. Other assistance was rendered by W. E. Guy, J. R. Gage, and Jackson Leonard.

In the report on the iron and coal, Pumpelly seems directly responsible only for the ideas advanced in the first 28 pages. It is worthy of note that even at this late date Pumpelly seems to have regarded the porphyries of Pilot Knob and adjacent regions as sedimentary rocks. He wrote:

> The porphyries are older than the Silurian and belong to the Archean (Azoic) formation of which they may be the youngest member in Missouri. * * * They are stratified on an immense scale, but owing to the rarity of interstratified beds of other rocks the unraveling of the internal structure of the district is a difficult problem.

The porphyry hills, like Pilot Knob and others, he regarded as Azoic rocks, the exposed portions of the skeleton of the eastern part of the Ozark range, rising from 300 to 1,800 feet above the level of the surrounding country. "They form an archipelago of islands in the Lower Silurian strata, which surround them as a whole and separate them from each other." The rocks overlying these he regarded as belonging to the oldest members of the Silurian, and thought that they might be the deep-seated equivalents of the Potsdam sandstone, or even older.

The region of these porphyries, as well as the Ozark range in general throughout Missouri, had, in his opinion, apparently been above the level of the sea from a very early period (perhaps since the Carboniferous and Silurian) to the present time.

He recognized the fact that the surface ore at Iron Mountain was a residuary product resulting from the disintegration and gradual removal of the siliceous rocks in which the iron ore was originally embedded, the instance offering, as he stated, an extreme case where decomposition of the porphyry in mass facilitated the separation of the ore from the rock and the mechanical removal of the latter.

Concerning the ultimate origin of the iron, Pumpelly was silent. Regarding the origin of the manganese ore as at Cuthbertsons Hill, in township 33, he wrote:

> It would seem that we have in these occurrences instances of replacement, but it is difficult to imagine a direct substitution of manganese oxides for the decomposition products of a porphyry, and all the more so in this case from the fact that the analysis shows the remaining porphyry, which is intimately associated with the ore, to have its normal constitution.

He further described what he called a metaphoric limestone at Huffs, near Ackhursts, as—

> nearly wholly changed into a porphyry or jasper rock, it having here a schistoid structure in which the alternate laminæ are impure, compact carbonate of lime. * * * Here is a member of the porphyry series which was originally, unquestionably, a limestone, but in which the original physical and chemical characteristics have almost wholly disappeared. It should not seem impossible that the manganiferous rocks which have been described may have had a similar origin, and that the manganese and iron oxides owe their present existence to a former replacement of the lime-carbonate by iron and manganese salts. The porphyry which now surrounds these ores may be due to a previous, contemporaneous, or subsequent replacement of the lime-carbonate by silica and silicates.

A "may be" to which few would assent at this date.

A general discussion of the iron ores and their distribution was comprised in the report of Mr. Chauvenet, which occupied 192 pages of the entire volume. According to this writer the ores of Iron Mountain are due to deposition from solution in water which filtered into fissures. Adolph Schmidt regarded these same ores as replacement products and attempted to explain their formation as follows: When a solution of sulphate or chloride of iron containing also carbonic acid

remains for any length of time in contact with a porphyry the latter will become decomposed, the alkalies being set free in the form of carbonates. The carbonates, reacting on the iron-bearing solutions, will precipitate the iron as oxides, which will fill the pores in the porphyry made by the removal of the alkalies. The silica set free in the process would be to some extent removed, but most of it would remain. The silicate of alumina would be decomposed by bicarbonate of iron in solution and removed in the form of a soluble bisilicate, as explained by Bischoff. It is needless to say that these views were not generally accepted.

Next to Owen's Key to the Geology of the Globe, I know of no more extraordinary publication relating to American geology than that of the artist George Catlin, entitled The Lifted and Subsided Rocks of America, with their Influences on the Oceanic, Atmospheric, and Land Currents, which was published in London in 1870.

Catlin's Views on Geology, 1870.

One can forgive any amount of ignorance relating to the subject of geology in a man of Catlin's profession, but it is not so easy to forgive him for putting before an indiscriminating public opinions which are founded on wholly insufficient, and in many cases visionary, data.

Catlin had traveled extensively throughout the western portions of North America and naturally had been attracted by the enormous amount of erosion and uplift manifest in a treeless area. That his thoughts should have been turned in this direction is not at all strange, but his conclusions are such as can be accounted for only on the grounds that he had received absolutely no training, had not learned how to observe, nor how to reason from that which he saw.

The most striking features of the work are those relating to the cause of the Gulf Stream and the origin of the Gulf of Mexico. He conceived that from both North and South America there issued two large subterranean streams of water, one flowing from the north to the south under the main axis of the Rocky Mountains, and the other in an opposite direction along the main axis of the Andes. These becoming heated through proximity to the volcanic fires in the region of the equator, finally issued, giving the necessary volume and temperature to account for the Gulf Stream.

The origin of the gulf itself he imagined to be due to an undermining of the crust of the earth and its subsequent falling in, through the solvent action of the heated water, and he figures the continent both before and after the catastrophe.[a]

[a] Catlin's book was noticed in the American Journal of Science, L, 1870, and dismissed with the following curt remark: "The writer of this work, well known for his travels among the American Indians, here treats of mountain drainage, upheavals, metamorphism, making of mountain chains, sinking of mountains, and of the Indian races of America. He presents his geological views and criticisms with great positiveness, which is consistent with the fact of his limited knowledge of the subject."

In 1871, Dr. F. V. Hopkins, professor of geology, chemistry, and mineralogy in the State University of Louisiana, issued a report on the geology of the State, relating particularly to the post-Tertiary deposits, and containing also a colored geological map. These deposits he divided into (1) Drift, (2) Port Hudson (so-called by Hilgard), (3) the Loess, and (4) the Yellow Loam, the last three being included also under the general name of Bluff Formation.

F. V. Hopkins' Geology of Louisiana, 1871.

Hopkins held (and Dana approved) that the Port Hudson and overlying beds were deposited when the land was at a lower level than now, and that the loess was the accumulation over an old flood plain of the Mississippi, as suggested by Lyell. The drift itself, however, he conceived to be due to the agency of icebergs in a sea at least 1,159 feet deep in the Ohio Valley. To this last view Dana, of course, objected.

In 1872 the subject of the formation of the great features of the earth's surface, including, of course, the formation of mountains, was brought up once more by Joseph Le Conte, then professor of geology and natural history in the University of California. In a series of articles in the American Journal of Science for this year he reviewed the ideas of Humboldt and others; discussed the probable condition of the earth's interior, whether fluidal or otherwise; and announced himself as convinced that the whole theory of igneous agencies, which formed the foundation of theoretic geology, should be reconstructed on the basis of a solid earth.

Le Conte's Ideas on Mountain Making, 1872.

On the assumption that such an earth would be not homogeneous, but that some areas would possess greater conductivity than others and would, therefore, cool and contract more rapidly in a radial direction, he affirmed that the present sea bottoms represented the areas of most, and the continents and mountain ranges those of less, rapid cooling and contraction. This he felt was borne out by the researches of physicists who had shown that the continental masses were less dense than suboceanic matter.

To him the cooling earth might be regarded as composed of concentric isothermal shells, each cooling by conduction. The exterior being the first to cool and solidify, would, through the shrinking away of the still cooling interior, become subjected to powerful horizontal pressure or thrust, which as time went on would find relief in the direction of least resistance (i. e., upward) and along lines of weakness. It was, however, his idea that this yielding was not by upbending into an arch, but by a mashing or crushing together horizontally like dough or plastic clay, with more or less folding of the strata and an upswelling or thickening of the whole squeezed mass.

He showed that, were a mass of sediments 10,000 feet in thickness subjected to horizontal pressure and crushing sufficient to develop well-marked cleavage structure, a breadth of 2½ miles would be crushed into 1 mile, and 10,000 feet thickness would be swelled to 25,000, making an actual elevation of the surface of 15,000 feet. He, therefore, felt justified in asserting that the phenomena of plication and of slaty cleavage demonstrated a crushing together horizontally and an upswelling of the whole mass of sediments, the upswelling produced by this cause alone being sufficient to account for the elevation of the greatest mountain chains.

Hall's theory, previously noted (p. 499), he regarded as wholly failing to explain the actual process by which the chains had been formed; and, taking into account the breadth of the Appalachians (at least 100 miles), he showed that the gentleness of the supposed convex curve of Hall would not produce the amount of crushing necessary for the formation of the immense plication.

Moreover, he pointed out the fact that sedimentation and subsidence were going on together, and, therefore, that the upper surface was probably never convex at all, but nearly or quite horizontal all the time. Subsidence under such conditions might produce horizontal tension or stretching of the lower strata, but could not produce the crushing and plication of the upper.

To Whitney's idea that plication was the result of the subsidence of a mountain axis he likewise took exception, and contended that chains and ranges were, beyond question, produced by horizontal thrust, crushing together the whole rock mass and swelling it up vertically, this thrust being the necessary result of secular contraction of the interior of the earth. In other words, "mountain chains are formed by the mashing together and upswelling of sea bottoms where immense thicknesses of sediments have accumulated, and as the greatest accumulations usually take place off the shores of continents mountains are usually formed by the uppressing of marginal sea bottoms." The submarine ridges and hollows shown by the soundings of the Coast Survey to exist along the course of the Gulf stream, extending from the point of Florida to the coast of New England, he felt might be true submarine mountain ranges now in course of formation by the processes already described.

Referring to the subject of metamorphism of rocks, as shown in mountain chains, he argued as follows: Supposing sediments accumulating along the shores of a continent. The first effect is lithification, and, therefore, increasing density, causing contraction and subsidence *pari passu* with the deposit. Next, if the sedimentation continue, aqueo-igneous softening or even melting would follow, not only of the lower portions of the sediments themselves, but of the underlying strata

upon which they were deposited. Finally, this softening would be sufficient to cause a yielding to horizontal pressure along the line, and a consequent upswelling of the line into a chain. Even the granitic axes of mountain ranges might, he thought, in most cases be but the lowermost, and, therefore, most highly metamorphosed portions of the squeezed mass, exposed by erosion.

He agreed with Richthofen and Whitney that the great masses of lava, often constituting the chief bulk of mountain chains, had not come from craters but from fissure eruptions, and that volcanoes are themselves only secondary phenomena, produced by the access of meteoric water to the still hot interior portions. He did not, however, agree with them in assuming that this fluidal mass was a part of a universally incandescent liquid interior, but rather a submountain reservoir locally formed. He felt that this theory, while not dependent upon, was powerfully supported by, the views of Rose, Bischoff, and others as to the metamorphic origin of granite and other igneous rocks, a view which regarded the surface materials as having passed by perpetual cycles through all the stages of rocks and soils—igneous rocks disintegrated to soils carried away and deposited as sediments; consolidated into stratified rocks; metamorphosed into gneiss, granite, or even lavas; to be again, after eruption, reconverted into soils, and recommence the same eternal round.

In furtherance of these same views, Le Conte in 1876 gave, in the American Journal of Science, the results of observations made in the Coast Range Mountains of California along the line of the Central Pacific Railroad. He found the largely unaltered rocks here thrown into a series of anticlines and synclines with angles of dip varying from 65° to 70°. From this he estimated that the original matter as deposited on a sea bottom must, in the building of the range, have been crushed from a breadth or width of 15 to 18 miles into 6 miles, with a corresponding upswelling of the whole mass. In 1878 Le Conte had another paper in the same journal on the same subject, in which he argued that mountain ranges are always formed by horizontal pressure, and that this pressure on a large scale could be produced only by the interior contraction of the earth. To overcome the objections raised by some to this theory to the effect that interior contraction could not concentrate its manifest results along certain lines without such a slipping and shearing as is impossible in a solid earth, he conceived the presence of a solid nucleus and a solid crust separated by a zone of fused or semifused matter. To an objection that contraction based upon shrinkage alone was inadequate to produce the evident results, he argued that there might be other causes, such as loss of water in form of vapor by volcanic action, and still others concerning which as yet nothing was known. His theory of origin, as he here summed it up, consisted of three stages: (1) A stage

of preparation by sedimentation; (2) a stage of yielding by horizontal pressure; and (3) a stage of erosion or mountain decay.

Sketch of Le Conte.

Le Conte was born in Liberty County, Georgia, February 26, 1823, and grew to manhood under influences of ease and enjoyment such as have fallen to the lot of few American geologists. Educated as a physician, he early gave up practice and in 1850 removed to Cambridge, in Massachusetts, to become a student of Agassiz. In less than two years he, however, returned to Georgia, where he became professor of natural science at Oglethorpe University. His stay here was brief. In December, 1852, he became attached to the University of Georgia, at Athens, and, in 1856, professor of chemistry and geology in South Carolina College, at Columbia. Here he remained, enduring the vicissitudes of the civil war, but abandoned his beloved South in 1869 (at a period when men of his type were most needed) to become professor of geology, zoology, and botany in the University of California, at Berkeley. Here he remained until his death, in 1902.

FIG. 88.—Joseph Le Conte.

Hilgard's Work at Petite Anse, Louisiana, 1872.

In 1866 E. W. Hilgard, at the suggestion of Professor Henry, of the Smithsonian Institution, visited the salt deposits of Petite Islands and published the results of his observations in the Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge in 1872, under the title On the Geology of Lower Louisiana and the Salt Deposits of Petite Anse.

As was to be expected, Hilgard differed completely with Thomassy, whose work has been noted, and who, it will be remembered, regarded the island as of volcanic origin. On the contrary, the island, and others of the group, were regarded as Cretaceous outliers, with cappings of drift and other alluvial matter, the salt beds themselves being of Cretaceous age.

Both Hilgard and Thomassy believed the sand and shingle detritus covering a large portion of the States bordering on the lower Mississippi was due to a great flood, which might have resulted from the rapid melting of the northern glaciers. Referring to the belief expressed by some of the western geologists to the effect that the main body of the drift was due to floating icebergs on an inland sea, Hilgard conceived its northern limits to have been fixed by the ice barriers. Toward the east, southeast, and southwest it would be defined by the Allegheny, Cumberland, and Ozark ranges, the main outlet lying, doubtless, in the axis of the Mississippi Valley, the gap between the

Ozark and Cumberland highlands not having been eroded to its present level.

A sudden break in the lower portion of the barriers would, he argued, produce the phenomena as now observed, namely, the action of violent currents plowing up and redepositing the material of the more ancient formations, carrying down in the main channel rocks of high northern derivation, restratifying and otherwise modifying toward the end a good portion of the iceberg drift and, as the current diminished, covering over the coarse material with the Orange sand.

W. C. Kerr on Effects of Earth's Rotation, 1873.

In 1873 W. C. Kerr, State geologist of North Carolina, published in the Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society a brief but suggestive paper on the possible influence of the earth's rotation on the deflection of rivers. He called attention to a fact so obvious as to have been evident to the common people of that State, that in both the Carolinas the eastward flowing rivers always presented high banks and bluffs on the south side and low plains and swamps on the north; also to the fact, owing to these topographical conditions, that the large towns and main roads were always on the south side also.

In seeking for a cause for this Kerr rejected the slow subsidence theory of Tuomey, and suggested that it was due rather to the rotation of the earth, coacting with the force of the river currents, and called in to sustain his opinions the law of motions as developed by Prof. W. Ferrel:

> In whatever direction a body moves on the surface of the earth there is a force arising from the earth's rotation which deflects it to the right in the northern, but to the left in the southern hemisphere.

Whether or not the application of this principle was original with Kerr, it is of course impossible to say. This, however, seems to have been its first application in America, though von Baer had suggested as early as 1860 like results in the case of north and south flowing rivers, as the Irtisch and the Volga of Russia.

Kerr's Work in North Carolina, 1870.

Kerr's final report on the geology of North Carolina, although presented in 1870, was not printed until 1875, owing to the parsimonious action of the State legislature, the public printer being allowed finally to set it up only under condition that the work be done in intervals of other work on the laws, documents, supreme court reports, etc.

The report was accompanied by a colored geological map and three colored sections. The classification of the rocks adopted was as shown on next page.

PROGRESSIVE THEORETICAL VIEW.

The following scheme exhibits the progress of theoretical notions which have obtained at different times with regard to the classification of the formations—the age and horizon of the rocks in the State:

Mitchell, 1842.	Emmons, 1856.	Present, 1875.
Tertiary	Tertiary: Post-Pliocene, Pliocene, Miocene, Eocene [a]	Quaternary. / Miocene. / Eocene. — Tertiary.
Secondary	Cretaceous, Triassic, Permian	Cretaceous. / Triassic.
Transition	Taconic	Silurian? Huronian.
Primitive	Gneiss, Granite, Syenite	Laurentian.

[a] Also partly Quaternary and partly Cretaceous.

This report gave a very fair summary of the knowledge of the geology of North Carolina up to date. The thin gravels overlying the eroded surfaces of the Eocene, Miocene, and Cretaceous in the eastern part of the State were regarded as of glacial origin, the underlying rock being planed down by the currents and drifting ice which brought the bowlders from the Archean hills of Chatham. This idea is not, however, generally accepted, North Carolina being now universally recognized as far south of the glacial limit.

The gold-bearing gravels were looked upon as beds of till which had crept down the declivities of the hills and mountains, as glaciers descend Alpine valleys by successive freezing and thawing of the whole water-saturated mass, both gravitation and the expansion of freezing contributing to the downward movement. This is evidently the same idea as that later advanced by I. C. Russell in his description of the débris streams of Alaska.

Appendices attached contained a list and descriptions of the new genera and species of fossil shells, by T. A. Conrad, and the minerals of the State, by F. A. Genth. A chapter on corundum and its associated rocks, by C. D. Smith, is mainly of interest from the fact that Smith regarded the chrysolitic rocks as of igneous origin, a conclusion which for sometime was disputed, but to which later workers have returned.

Kerr was of Scotch-Irish descent, though born in North Carolina. His parents dying while he was quite young, he was adopted by a Rev. Dr. Caruthers, a Presbyterian minister, under whose instruction he was fitted for the State University at Chapel Hill, where he graduated in 1850 with highest honors. After graduation he taught school for a while at Williamstown in his native State, until elected to a pro-

fessorship in Marshall University, Texas. This position he resigned in 1852 to accept an appointment as computer in the Nautical Almanac Office, then located at Cambridge, Massachusetts. While here he entered the Lawrence Scientific School and studied under Agassiz, Gray, and the chemist Horsford.

Sketch of Kerr.

In 1857 he accepted a professorship at Davidson College in North Carolina, where he remained until 1865, though his active work ceased in 1862, owing to a falling off in income and students, incident to the civil war. From the latter part of 1862 to early in 1864 he was chemist and superintendent of the Mecklenburg Salt Works, near Charleston, South Carolina, but after the destruction of the works, returned to North Carolina, where he became nominally State geologist in 1864, though active work, owing to the confusion and disorganization of war, did not begin until 1866.

FIG. 89.—Washington Caruthers Kerr.

It is safe to say that few men ever entered upon the work of a geological survey under more unfavorable auspices. He himself had had no extended experience, nor was he a trained specialist. Little money was available, the industries of the State paralyzed, and her social conditions disorganized, if not demoralized. The State had never a more genuine and sagaciously public-spirited citizen than he, but the times were evil, and for several years Professor Kerr shared the fate of all public officials who were endeavoring to adjust, to reconcile, and to go forward. His motives were misrepresented, his character assailed, his abilities questioned, his work maligned. Yet in the face of all this, without good maps and with few roads, a great work was accomplished.

During one of the first years of the survey he traveled, mainly on horseback, 1,700 miles over mountainous country, with and without roads, and during the season of 1866 and 1867 not less than 4,000 miles. Work thus performed was from necessity largely in the nature of reconnaissance. The subjects of drainage and topography received a large share of attention, and indeed a large part of his work was along physiographic lines, though by no means limited thereto. Agricultural and mineral resources were investigated and, so far as possible with the limited means at his command, advertised. His papers which attracted the most widespread attention were doubtless those relating to the action of frost on superficial materials and the unequal erosion of the banks of a stream, due to the earth's rotation.

Kerr was a man of slight physique, and for the last ten or fifteen years of his life suffered from catarrh of the digestive organs. The funds available were too small to enable him to employ permanent assistants, either in the field or as clerk or amanuensis. Under these circumstances the amount of work accomplished was certainly remarkable.

He was an exceedingly liberal man—a man of generous temper and of large views. * * * He was deeply religious and always prominent, although in an unobtrusive way, in matters pertaining to the church. As a Christian gentleman, those who have known him best have admired him most. His heart was warm and generous, his mind clear, active, and progressive, his conscience keen and inflexible. He was honest in every sense of the word. There was nothing of policy in his thought or action; on the contrary, he was frank and outspoken, at times even to a fault. (Holmes.)

In 1873 the legislature of Alabama passed an act reviving the survey, which had been discontinued after the death of Professor Tuomey, in 1857, and named Prof. Eugene A. Smith, of the University of Alabama, State geologist. This office Professor Smith has continued to hold down to the present time. Up to and including 1880 he had made five reports. These were given up mainly to a discussion of the geographic distribution of the various formations comprised within the State limits, with extensive notes regarding the economic possibilities of coal, iron, and other minerals of less importance.

Smith's Work in Alabama, 1873.

FIG. 90.—Eugene Allen Smith.

In his report for 1875–76 he treated of the geology of Jones Valley and the Coosa Valley region and announced the practical identity of the formations there found with those described by Professor Safford in Tennessee, recognizing the Ocoee, Chilhowee, Knox sandstone, shale and dolomite, and Lower and Upper Carboniferous. In those of 1877, 1878, and 1879 special reference was made to the Warrior coal fields and their probable value. Several colored county maps were given, but no geological map of the entire State.

In the spring of 1873 there was organized a second geological survey of Kentucky, with N. S. Shaler, then professor of paleontology at Harvard, chief geologist and director, and A. R. Crandall, P. N. Moore, C. J. Norwood, and J. R. Proctor, assistants. Dr. Robert Peter served as chemist. The organization continued as above until 1880, when J. R. Proctor succeeded to the directorship through the resignation and recommendation of Professor Shaler, the survey coming finally to a close in 1891.

Second Geological Survey of Kentucky, 1873-1891.

Up to 1880 five reports of progress were issued, dealing mainly with economic problems.

The plateau country drained by the Colorado River offers facilities for the study of geological problems such as are, perhaps, equaled nowhere else in the world. This is especially true with reference to problems relating to stratigraphic succession, of uplift with a minimum amount of contortion of the beds, and of erosion. The plateau nature of the country was recognized by Newberry while with the Ives expedition in 1860, and by Blake in connection with the Pacific Railroad surveys in 1856. It remained, however, for Powell, Gilbert, and Dutton to first bring out the salient features of the geology of the region and to work out the problems in a way that, to quote the words of Emmons[a], has formed the starting point of modern physical geography.

Powell's Exploration of the Grand Canyon, 1869–1874.

In the summer of 1869, J. W. Powell, a retired officer of the Federal Army, made a boat trip down the Colorado, starting from Green River City on the Union Pacific Railroad May 24, and emerging from the mouth of the Black Canyon, nearly 900 miles below, on August 30 following—a journey that, to quote Emmons again, "is unequaled in the annals of geographical exploration for the courage and daring displayed in its execution."

FIG. 91.—John Wesley Powell.

In his reports on these explorations,[b] which were made and published under direction of the Smithsonian Institution, Powell called attention to the fact that the canyons are gorges of corrosion and due to the action of the river upon the rocks, which were undergoing a gradual elevation. As he expressed it, the river preserved its level, but the mountains were lifted up; as the saw revolves on a fixed pivot while the log through which it cuts is moved along. The river was the saw which cut the mountain in two. This is essentially the idea advanced by Hayden in 1872 in his report on the geology of Montana.

In this report Powell first made use of the expressions of *antecedent* and *consequent* valleys, meaning in the first instance that the drainage was established prior or antecedent to the corrugation of the beds by faulting and folding; and in the second case, that the valleys have directions which are dependent upon the corrugations. Valleys which were formed by streams, the present courses of which were deter-

[a] Presidential address, Geological Society of Washington, 1896.

[b] Letter of transmittal dated June 16, 1874; publication in 1875.

mined by conditions not found in the rocks through which the channels are now carved, but which were in existence when the district last appeared above sea level, he called *superimposed* valleys.

In this same report, too, Powell made use for the first time of the term *base level of erosion*, which he defined as—

> an imaginary surface inclining slightly in all its parts toward the end of the principal stream draining the area through which the level is supposed to extend, or having the inclination of its parts varied in direction as determined by tributary streams.

He pointed out, further, that the region of the Grand Canyon was after all a region of lesser rather than greater erosion; that had the country been favored with a rainfall equal to that of the Appalachian country, the entire area might have been reduced to a base level which would be the level of the sea, though the evidence of such erosion might be almost wholly obliterated.

J. P. Lesley on Iron Ores and Denudation, 1874.

J. P. Lesley, writing in 1874 on the iron ores of Spruce Creek, Warriors Mark Run, and Half Moon River, in Huntingdon and Center counties, Pennsylvania, took the ground that they were residual deposits from the decomposition of ferriferous Lower Silurian beds, which were at one time buried beneath more than 16,000 feet of Upper Silurian, Devonian, and Carboniferous rocks, and had been subsequently exposed through decomposition and erosion.

> At the end of the coal era the Middle States rose from the waves. * * * The edges of the Bellefonte fault stood as a mountain range as high as the Alps, and the backs of some of the great anticlinals of Pennsylvania must have formed plateaus then as high as Tibet and Bootan are now.
>
> Erosion commenced and has continued through the Permian, Jurassic, Cretaceous, and Tertiary ages to the present day, and still goes on. The high plateau was gradually worn down to the present surface. Mountains once 30,000 or 40,000 feet high are now but 2,000 or 3,000 above sea level.

Such extreme views as to the possible height of mountain ranges are equaled among modern geologists only by those of Clarence King (p. 612).

Winchell's Work in the Black Hills, 1874.

In 1874 N. H. Winchell accompanied, as geologist, the party headed by Capt. W. Ludlow to the Black Hills of Dakota. His report, appearing in 1875, occupied pages 21 to 66 of the quarto volume issued, and was accompanied by a geological map. Winchell recognized the occurrence of Cretaceous, Jurassic, Triassic, Carboniferous, and Silurian (Potsdam) rocks, overlying schists and slates, into and through which granite had been intruded. He agreed in the main with Hayden's observations, as given in his Second Annual Report (1868), though he failed to find evidence of the unbroken conformability of the fossiliferous formations. On the contrary, he mentioned the Red Beds as lying unconformably on the Carboniferous limestone.

George Bird Grinnell accompanied the expedition in the capacity of paleontologist, though the new species of invertebrate fossils found (*Obolus pectenoides*, *Terebratula helena*, and *Lingulepis primæformis*) were described and figured by R. P. Whitfield.

The presence of numerous bands of prospectors on the Indian reservations of the Black Hills, led there by the reported finding of gold by Custer's and other expeditions, caused the National Government, in 1875, to send "trusty persons" to examine the region and report to the Secretary of the Interior, in order that a proper basis might be secured for future negotiations with the Indians. The locality being then comprised in the Sioux Indian reservation, immediate direction of affairs was put in the hands of the Indian Bureau. Under this authorization W. P. Jenny was appointed to undertake the work, with Henry Newton as assistant. The party entered the region on the 3d of June, some 400 strong, a large military guard being esteemed necessary on account of the manifest discontent of the Indians, and returned to Fort Laramie on October 14, after an absence of four months and twenty days. A preliminary report on the mineral resources of the Hills, accompanied by a map by V. T. McGillycuddy, the topographer, was submitted by Mr. Jenny and published in the report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs for 1875. The complete report on the mineral resources, climate, etc., with a preliminary map, was published in the form of an octavo pamphlet of 71 pages in 1876, and the final Report on the Geology and Resources of the Black Hills of Dakota, in form of a quarto volume of 566 pages, with large folio atlas, in 1880. This included, also, the previous reports on the mineral resources, noted above. Unfortunately, Doctor Newton, to whom was left the general geology of the region, died before his report was fully prepared for the press, the work being ably edited by G. K. Gilbert, and the volume issued as one of the monographs of the Powell survey.

Work of Jenny and Newton in the Black Hills, 1875.

The Black Hills region, it will be remembered, had already been touched upon and fragmentary surveys made by numerous parties, including Dr. John Evans in 1849 and 1853, Thaddeus Culbertson in 1850, Meek and Hayden in 1853, and Hayden, with the military expeditions of Harvey and Warren in 1855 and 1857, and with Captain Raynolds in 1859. Hayden again visited the region under the auspices of the Philadelphia Academy in 1866, and N. H. Winchell with Custer's expedition in 1876, as just noted. Under all these conditions it is difficult to estimate the value of the work of Newton. Much that he stated in his report had already been made known by the authorities mentioned above. On the other hand, much that he might have had in mind to say has never appeared, owing to his untimely death.

The summary of Black Hills history, as given, shows an older Archean consisting of shales and sandstones over which, after an inter-

val of erosion and metamorphism, a newer Archean, consisting mainly of sandstones, was deposited, accompanied by abundant intrusions of granitic rock. Then followed the period in which these rocks were raised to a nearly vertical position, metamorphosed, and deeply eroded, after which the various Potsdam, Carboniferous, Red Bed, Jura, and Cretaceous deposits were conformably laid down. Then followed the uplift and subsequently the unconformable depositions of the White River Tertiaries upon their flanks. The date of the uplift is therefore set as the interval of time between the Cretaceous formation and the beginning of the Miocene Tertiary. (See under Hayden, p. 591.)

Newton showed that the drainage from the Black Hills was consequent—that is, it conformed to the dip of the strata. This he conceived to be caused by the streams having acquired their direction during the uplift of the hills, or while they were being laid bare by the drainage of a lake. In either case the drainage is consequent upon the uplift. With the rivers—the Belle Fourche and the South Fork of the Cheyenne—the case is different, however. These cut across the

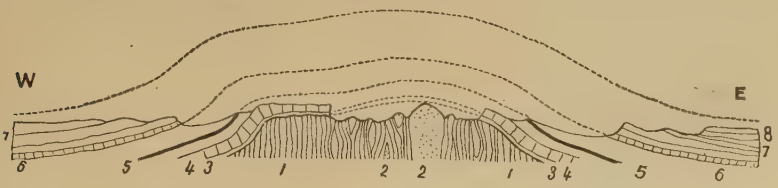

FIG. 92.—Ideal cross-section of the Black Hills. (After Henry Newton.)

The vertical scale is about six times the horizontal; the dotted lines indicate the portion of the uplift removed by erosion; 1, Archean slates and schists; 2, Granite; 3, Potsdam, resting unconformably on 1 and 2; 4, Carboniferous; 5, Red Beds, with included limestone; 6, Jura; 7, Cretaceous; 8, White River Tertiary, resting unconformably on 7.

uplifted strata in a way to show that the drainage is superimposed. If they existed prior to the deposition of the Tertiary sediments they were completely blotted out.

J. H. Caswell described the various metamorphic and eruptive rocks collected by the survey, his paper forming the second on the subject of micropetrography to appear from the Government press, Zirkel's fortieth parallel report (1876) being the first. The report was accompanied by two plates with eight colored figures illustrating microstructure and composition, and is of particular interest as giving the first authoritative account of the occurrence of the rock phonolite in the United States. Caswell, although one of the first in a new and fascinating field, seems to have rested on his laurels, content with the one effort, his name in geologic literature appearing here for the first and only time.

W. P. Jenny, to whom fell the economic work, reported gold occurring (1) in veins of quartz traversing Archean schists and slates; (2) in slate mineralized by waters depositing silica and iron pyrites; (3) in

the conglomerate forming the lower layer of the Potsdam sandstone and derived from the Archean rocks; (4) in trachyte and porphyry intruded at the time of the elevation of the hills; (5) "in deposits in the slates and sedimentary rocks produced by the intrusion of the trachyte and porphyry," and (6) "in placer gravels resulting from the decomposition and erosion of the above formations in Tertiary times."

The quartz veins he did not regard as "true fissure veins," but, as they occurred filling fissures between the lamellæ of the schists formed in the process of the folding, were referred to as "interlaminated fissures."

The fossils collected by this expedition were worked up by Whitfield while at Albany in 1876.

Under act approved March 18, 1873, a geological survey of Wisconsin was authorized, and I. A. Lapham appointed State geologist by the then acting governor, C. C. Washburn. Owing to an apparent oversight on the part of Governor Washburn, Professor Lapham's name was, however, not sent to the senate for approval, and an opportunity thereby offered for Governor Washburn's successor, W. R. Taylor, to supersede him by Dr. O. W. Wight. So far as shown by public records, the transaction was purely political and not at all creditable to Governor Taylor.

Lapham's Survey of Wisconsin, 1873.

FIG. 93.—Increase Allen Lapham.

Lapham therefore served but two years, during this time rendering two reports. These were not published independently, but subsequently formed the first 65 pages of the second volume of the reports of State geologist, T. C. Chamberlin. He was assisted by R. D. Irving, T. C. Chamberlin, and Moses Strong. The two reports referred to were naturally of a preliminary nature, designed to form the basis for future work. Lapham, perhaps even more than others of his time, was an all-round naturalist—a type not possible in this day and generation. Beginning life as a stonecutter and afterwards a civil engineer, he yet found time to study and observe in nearly all branches of the sciences, and this, too, with remarkable accuracy. His first paper of a geological nature is said to have been prepared when he was but sixteen years of age, and was published in the American Journal of Science for 1828. This gave an account of the geology in the vicinity of the Louisville and Shippingport Canal, and was illustrated by a map and geological sections of a nature very creditable to a youth of his years.

His bibliography includes upward of fifty titles, embracing, besides geology, articles on climatology, archæology, botany, and cartogra-

phy. He is represented as a modest, patient, and industrious man, living more for the service of others than for his own aggrandizement. He died of heart trouble while alone on a lake near Oconomowoc, Wisconsin.

Lapham was succeeded, as above noted, by O. W. Wight, who served but one year (1875). His one report of progress was not published at the time, but was likewise included by Chamberlin in the second volume of the final reports, bearing date of 1877. It contained matter of little other than historical interest.

In February, 1876, Prof. T. C. Chamberlin was placed in charge of the State survey. The organization continued in existence until 1879, the final reports appearing in the form of four royal octavo volumes, dated, respectively, Vol. I, 1883; Vol. II, 1877; Vol. III, 1880, and Vol. IV, 1882, comprising altogether 3,035 pages.

Chamberlin's Survey of Wisconsin, 1876.

FIG. 94.—Thomas Crowder Chamberlin.

The principal assistants on the survey were R. D. Irving, F. H. King, Moses Strong, E. T. Sweet, J. D. Whitney, and L. C. Wooster. R. P. Whitfield served as paleontologist. Aside from acting as director of the survey, Chamberlin himself took charge of the geology of eastern Wisconsin, of which he described in considerable detail the hydrology, the soils, and the glacial drift. The so-called Kettle Range he believed to be in part moraines, and the kettle holes to be due mainly to the melting of masses of ice buried in the gravels. He discussed the economical value of the clays and shell marls of the region, and for the first time in America demonstrated the usefulness of the microscope in examinations of detrital rocks. In this connection he noted that a microscopic examination of the sand grains of the Potsdam sandstone was entirely fatal to the view still occasionally advanced to the effect that such were produced by crystallization from solution. He, in his turn, however, failed to recognize the possibility of the crystalline form of some of the granules being due to secondary enlargement (see pp. 469 and 553).

The oolitic iron ore lying between the Cincinnati shales and the Niagara limestone was thought to be undoubtedly a marine deposit laid down in detached basins. It was shown, further, that the three well-marked classes of limestone occurring in the southeastern counties of Wisconsin graded into each other and were doubtless formed contemporaneously, the residual mounds or ridges being ancient coral reefs, while the granular sand rock was formed from calcareous sands

derived by wave action from the reef, the compact strata being deeper quiet-water deposits of the same material.

Chamberlin also investigated the ore deposits of the southeastern part of the State, and discussed thoroughly the problems involved in the origin of the ores, disagreeing in many minor points with both Doctors Owen and Whitney. The crevices in which the ores occur he believed to have originated primarily in the folding of the rocks by lateral pressure. He pointed out that the ore beds occur mainly in basin-like depressions and argued that the ore material, originally in solution in sea water, was deposited contemporaneously with the limestone through the action of sulphureted vapors given off by the decomposition of organic matter, and that, after the elevation of the beds above sea level, percolating meteoric waters oxidized and dissolved the ore once more and carried it into the fissures above noted, where it was the second time precipitated as sulphides. Fourteen-hundredths of 1 per cent of ore material disseminated throughout 100 feet in depth of the ore-bearing limestone would, he pointed out, be sufficient to have formed all the deposits as they now exist. He did not agree with Whitney in assuming that the oceanic waters of early geologic periods were richer in metallic salts than those of later data, instancing in support of his argument the fact that the ore-bearing beds were in many cases really poorer in organic matter than those which were nonmetalliferous and more ancient. This criticism did not, however, affect the general principle as laid down by Whitney. With his predecessors he doubted the probability of the existence of workable deposits of ore in the Lower Magnesian limestone.

Volume I of the reports of this survey was designed as a general treatise on the geology of the State, suited to the wants of explorers, miners, landowners, and manufacturers. In this Chamberlin stated his belief that the original source of the Keweenawan copper ore was the igneous rocks, from whence it has been concentrated through the agency of permeating atmospheric waters. To quote his own words, he believed—

> First, that the metals, copper and silver, were primitively constituents of the rocks that were melted to produce the lavas which formed the trappean sheets of the formation; second, that they were brought up and spread out, commingled with the molten rock material; third, that they were chemically extracted thence by percolating waters and concentrated in the porous belts or fissures of the formation, giving rise to the exceptionally rich deposits for which the formation is famous; and fourth, that the surface disintegration of portions exposed in the latter part of the period yielded metallic ingredients to the adjacent sea, from whence they were extracted by organic agencies, giving rise to impregnated sediments, which, in turn, through subsequent concentrations, gave rise to other copper and silver deposits, among which are to be reckoned the later metallic horizons of the Lake Superior region and possibly elsewhere.

Naturally, the subject of the drift was treated in considerable detail. The Glacial period was divided into the Terrace or Fluviatile epoch,

Champlain or Lacustrine epoch, the Second Glacial epoch, inter-Glacial epoch, and first Glacial epoch. This formal announcement of the fact that there had been two distinct periods of glaciation was here made for the first time, although as noted on page 463, Prof. Edward Hitchcock had suggested its possibility as early as 1856. The law of flowage Chamberlin regarded as essentially similar to that of viscous fluids, in accordance with the observations of Agassiz, Forbes, Tyndall, and others. A later study of Greenland glaciers has caused him to change his views on this point.

Irving, as one of Chamberlin's assistants, dwelt with great detail on the lithological character of the rocks in the regions surveyed by him, and his reports are notable for the beauty of the colored plates of thin sections, which were by far the best that had been prepared and published by an American up to that date. He was assisted in this part of the work by C. R. Van Hise. He also described in some detail the glacial drift, and was the first to announce that the Kettle Range of central Wisconsin was a continuous terminal moraine.

R. D. Irving, 1873–1879.

In the third edition of his work on Acadian Geology, which appeared in 1878, Dawson returned once more to a vigorous discussion of the problems of the ice age, and to register again his opposition to the views generally held by American geologists. Many of the arguments used closely resembled those of his former papers and may be reviewed here for the last time. He regarded the phenomena of the bowlder clay and drift in eastern America as due to the action of local glaciers, drift ice, and the agency of cold northern currents. Against the theory of an universal glacier he again argued on the ground that such suppositions were not warranted by the facts. "The temperate regions of North America could not be covered with a permanent mantle of ice under existing conditions of solar radiation; for, even if the whole were elevated into a table-land, its breadth would secure a sufficient summer heat to melt away the ice except from high mountain peaks." For the supposition that such immense mountain chains existed and have disappeared, he found no warrant in geology, and for such an "unexampled astronomical cause of refrigeration" as the earth's passing into a colder portion of space, he found no evidence in astronomy. Against Frankland's idea that glaciation was brought about through a higher temperature of the sea along with a lower temperature of the land, he instanced the actual colder

Third Edition of Dawson's Acadian Geology, 1878.

FIG. 95.—Roland Duer Irving.

condition of the sea, as shown by the fossils of that period. He agreed with Lyell in regarding the theory of the varying eccentricity of the earth as expounded by Croll as insufficient; moreover, it seemed to him physically impossible that a sheet of ice such as that supposed could move over an uneven surface, striating it in directions uniform over vast areas and often different from the present inclination of the surface.

He was further influenced in his opinion by the work of Hopkins, who showed, apparently, that only the sliding motion of glaciers could polish or erode rock surfaces, and the internal changes in their mass—the result of weight—could have little or no effect. Glaciers, moreover, he argued could not have transported the bowlders great distances and lodged them upon the hilltops, and the universal glacier would, moreover, have no gathering ground for its materials. The huge feldspar bowlders from the Laurentide Hills, stranded at Montreal Mountain at a height of 600 feet above the sea and from 50 to 60 miles farther southwest, and which must have come from little, if any, greater elevation and from a direction nearly at right angles to that of the glacial striæ, were against the ice-sheet theory, as were also the large bowlders scattered through the marine stratified clays and sands, and the occurrence of marine fossils in the lower part of the drift, in the true till near Portland and Cape Elizabeth, Maine, and at various points on the St. Lawrence in Canada. In the Post-Pliocene deposits of Canada he found evidence of a gradual elevation from a state of depression which may have amounted to more than 500 feet, while only the bowlder clay represents the previous subdivision, and only striations on the rocks indicate an ice-clad condition of the land. Both plant and animal life indicated to him that the conditions of temperature of the sea were not greatly different from those of to-day.

Referring to the direction of the striæ, he found evidence such as led him to declare without hesitation that their direction is "from the ocean toward the interior against the slope of the St. Lawrence Valley." This, he felt, at once disposed of the glacial theory for the prevailing set of striæ, since he could not suppose a glacier to move from the Atlantic up into the interior. On the other hand, he regarded it as eminently favorable to the idea of ocean drift. A subsidence sufficient to convert the Canadian plains, New York, and New England into a sea would, he thought, cause the Arctic current to pour over the Laurentide rocks on the north side of Lake Superior and Lake Huron, cutting out the softer strata to form their beds, and drifting their materials to the southwest. The lower strata of the current would be diverted through the strait between the Adirondacks and Laurentide Hills, and, flowing over the ridge of hard rocks which connects them at the Thousand Islands, would cut out the long basins

of Lake Ontario, heaping up at the same time in the lea of the Laurentian ridge the great mass of bowlder clay which intervenes between Lake Ontario and Georgian Bay. Lake Erie and Lake Michigan were, he argued, cut out by similar currents. At times of obstruction of currents which produced the southwest striations, while the valleys of the Ottawa, Mohawk, Lake Champlain, and the Connecticut were arms of the sea, the currents would set along these arms, producing the northwest and southeast striations.

Local glaciation might prevail in high peaks, but the so-called moraines were to his mind shingle beaches and bars and old coast lines loaded with bowlders and ozars. The fiords on the coast, like the deep lateral valleys of mountains, were evidences of the action of waves and currents rather than those of ice.

The subsidence noted above, which would result in converting the plains of Canada, New York, and New England into seas and cause the Arctic current to flow over the submerged area from northeast to southwest, would produce a current which would move up a slope, and the ice which it bore would, therefore, tend to ground and grind the bottom as it passed into shallow water.[a]

In the first edition (1855) of Acadian Geology the occurrence of the albertite deposits in the Lower Carboniferous rocks of New Brunswick received considerable attention. In the discussions there given relating to their origin, he concludes that the material belongs to the purest variety of bituminous coal, related to the pitch coals or jets. He admitted, however, that it had some claim to be considered a distinct mineral species intermediate between the coals and asphalts. At that time he regarded the deposit as having originated through the deposition of organic matter in fresh water, the deposit having since been very singularly distorted by mechanical pressure.

In the second edition of the work (1868) he, however, modified his expressed opinion, accepting the views of more recent explorers like Hitchcock, Bailey, and Hind, who had described the deposit as a vein

[a] To substantially these views Dawson held to the very last. In his Ice Age in Canada (1893) he is found still combating vigorously the idea that all northern Europe and America were covered by a *mer de glace* moving to the southward and outward to the sea, and which moved not only stones and clay to immense distances, but glaciated and striated the whole surface. The glacial theory of Agassiz and others he described as having grown until, like the imaginary glaciers themselves, it overspread the whole earth. He adopted rather what he called the moderate view of Sir Roderick Murchison and Sir Charles Lyell, to the effect that Pleistocene subsidence and refrigeration produced a state of our continents in which the lower levels, and at certain periods even the tops of the higher hills, were submerged under water filled every season with heavy field ice formed on the surface of the sea, as at present in Smiths Sound, and also with abundant icebergs derived from glaciers descending from unsubmerged mountain districts. The later Pliocene, so far as Canada was concerned, he considered to be a period of continental elevation and probably of temperate climate.

filled with bituminous matter. The source of the bituminous matter he supposed to be the Lower Carboniferous shales. In his own words:

> The deposit of the Albert mine would thus be a vein or fissure constituting an ancient reservoir of petroleum which, by the loss of its more volatile parts and partial oxidation, has been hardened into a coaly substance.

He regarded the Nova Scotia gypsum beds as due to the alteration of beds of limestone by free sulphuric acid poured into the sea by springs or streams issuing from the volcanic rocks. In this connection he gave a highly interesting verbal picture of the condition of affairs, as he imagined them to exist, at what is now the Southern Hants and Colchester at the time when the marine limestones and gypsums were produced.

> At this period, then, all the space between the Cobequids and the Rawdon Hills was an open arm of the sea, communicating with the ocean both on the east and west. Along the margin of this sea there were in some places stony beaches, in others low alluvial flats covered with the vegetation characteristic of the Carboniferous period. In other places there were creeks and lagoons swarming with fish. In the bottom, at a moderate distance from the shore, began wide banks of shells and corals, and in the central or deeper parts of the area there were beds of calcareous mud with comparatively few of these living creatures. In the hills around, volcanoes of far greater antiquity than those whose products we considered in a former chapter, were altering and calcining the slaty and quartzose rocks; and from their sides every land-flood poured down streams of red sand and mud, while in many places rills and springs, strongly impregnated with sulphuric acid, were flowing or rising, and entering the sea, decomposed vast quantities of the carbonate of lime accumulated by shells and corals and converted it into snowy gypsum.

The fauna of the seas of the Lower Carboniferous coal formations and Permian periods, both in Europe and America, presented so great similarities that, in a broad view, he felt they were identical. The changes and the subdivisions of this fauna were related not merely to lapse of time but to vicissitudes of physical conditions. It followed that, according to his reasoning, if the peculiar Permian conditions indicated by the rocks came earlier in Nova Scotia than in Europe the character of the fauna might also be changed earlier. In other words, "We have both rocks and shells with Permian aspect in the earlier Carboniferous period." The fact that the marine fauna of the Lower Carboniferous of Nova Scotia more nearly resembled that of Europe than the western States he regarded as indicating that the Atlantic was at that time probably an unobstructed sea basin as now, while the Appalachians already, in part, separated the deep-sea fauna of the Carboniferous seas east and west of them.

Concerning the origin of coal he wrote: "Mineral charcoal results from subaerial decay; the compact coal, from subaqueous putrefaction more or less modified by heat and exposure to air." Further, he regarded mineral charcoal as the woody débris of trees, while the compact coal was produced from the bark of these same trees along with such woody,

SIR WILLIAM DAWSON.
Principal of McGill University.

and herbaceous matter as might be embedded or submerged before decay had time to take place.

He referred again to the observations and conclusions made by him in connection with his Joggins work several years previous, to the effect that the layers of clear, shining coal (pitch or cherry coal) are composed of flattened trunks of trees, and that of these usually the bark alone remains, the lamination of the coal being due to the superposition of layers of such flattened trunks alternating with the accumulations of vegetable matter of successive years, and occasionally with fine vegetable muck or mud spread over the surface by rains or by inundations.

The stigmaria found in the clay underlying nearly every bed of coal he felt proved beyond question the accumulation of the coal-forming materials through growth in situ, following in this respect the teaching of Logan. The under or fire clay was thus looked upon as a fossil soil robbed of its alkali and lime through growths of terrestrial vegetation.

The rocks of the Arisaig series, which in 1855 he regarded as Silurian-(Devonian ?), in the edition of 1868 he says "must be regarded as representing the middle and upper parts of the Upper Silurian, a position somewhat lower than that assigned to it in the first edition."

The provincial predictions of Dawson in this work are somewhat amusing. Thus, on page 4:

> Further, since by those unchanging laws of geological structure and geographical position which the Creator himself has established, this region must always, notwithstanding any artificial arrangements that man may make, remain distinct from Canada on the one hand and New England on the other, the name Acadia must live; and I venture to predict that it will yet figure honorably in the history of this western world. The resources of the Acadian provinces must necessarily render them more wealthy and populous than any area of the same extent on the Atlantic coast from the Bay of Fundy to the Gulf of Mexico, or in the St. Lawrence Valley from the sea to the head of the Great Lakes. Their maritime and mineral resources constitute them the Great Britain of eastern America, and though merely agricultural capabilities may give some inland and more southern regions a temporary advantage, Acadia will in the end assert its natural preeminence.

Sketch of Dawson.

Dawson was a Nova Scotian by birth, having first seen the light of day at Pictou in 1820. He was educated at Pictou Academy and subsequently at the University of Edinburgh, Scotland, where he came under the influence of Jamieson, Forbes, Balfour, and Alexander Rose. In 1847 he returned to Nova Scotia, and in 1855 assumed the principalship and chair of natural history in McGill University, Montreal, at the head of which institution he remained until 1893, when he was forced by ill health to resign. His first original paper, as has been noted, was on a species of field mouse found in Nova Scotia, and was read before the Wernerian Society of Edinburgh. From so insignificant a beginning he developed

into one of the most prolific and voluminous writers. The Geological History of Plants, The Air Breathers of the Coal Period, The Canadian Ice Age, The Dawn of Life, Story of the Earth and Man, Fossil Men and their Modern Representatives, The Meeting Place of Geology and History, and Modern Science in Bible Lands are among the best known of his writings, in addition to the work above reviewed. In educational matters he was always prominent, and the present standing of McGill University is largely due to his industry and ability as an administrator. He is represented by his biographer as a man of quiet geniality, gentle and courtly in manner, but, as may be readily surmised from his record in the Eozoon controversy, decided in opinion and firm in action. Like Alexander Winchell he took a prominent part in overcoming the popular prejudice concerning the supposed antagonism between religion and the sciences, particularly geology. An advanced and liberal thinker, he was, nevertheless, not an evolutionist in the ordinary acceptance of the term. He believed that the introduction of new species of animals and plants had been a continuous process, not necessarily in the sense of deviation of one species from another, but in the higher sense of the continued operation of the cause or causes which introduced life at first. The history of a life, he argued, presents a progress from the lower to the higher, from the simpler to the more complex, and from the more generalized to the more specialized. In this progress new types are introduced and take the place of the older ones, which sink to a relatively subordinate place and become thus degraded. To him paleontology furnished no direct evidence as to the actual transformation of one species into another or as to the actual circumstances of creation of a species; but the drift of its testimony to him showed that species come in *per saltum* rather than by any slow and gradual process.

In 1879 there was published, as already noted (p. 515), part one of Whitney's Auriferous Gravels of the Sierra Nevada of California, and in 1880 part two of the same work, the combined papers comprising a volume of 569 pages, in which the distribution, origin, and characteristics of the auriferous gravels of the Sierras are fully discussed and much information given regarding their method of mining and economic value.

Whitney's Auriferous Gravels, 1879 80.

Discussing the origin of the conglomerates and the prevailing theories regarding their marine origin, he wrote:

> Again, these detrital deposits are not distributed over the flanks of the Sierra in any such way as they would have been if they were the result of the action of the sea. On the contrary, there is every reason to believe that they consist of materials which have been brought down from the mountain heights above and deposited in preexisting valleys; sometimes very narrow accumulations, simply beds of ancient rivers, and at other times in wide lake-like expanses of former water courses.

Subsequent work has apparently fully confirmed Whitney's view.

The time of deposition was put down by him as during the later Pliocene epoch, and not as late as the drift of the Diluvial period.

Many pages were devoted to the vertebrate fossils found in the auriferous gravels, and particularly to the evidences of man, and the Calaveras skull. The question of the contemporaneous deposition of this skull with the gravels has been too frequently discussed by ethnologists to need more than a brief mention here. Suffice for the present to state that Whitney himself seems to have been fully convinced of the genuineness of the find, and regarded it as establishing beyond doubt the existence of Tertiary man in California.

In discussing the source of the gold and its distribution in the gravel Whitney took occasion to express the opinion that, as a whole, the occurrence of metalliferous ores is rather a surface phenomenon than a deep-seated one, and that this is due to the favorable conditions for fissure formation and deposition from solution controlled by temperature and pressure.

The source of the gold he thought to be undoubtedly the quartz veins which traverse the Jurassic slates, a fact to his mind refuting Murchison's theory of the occurrence of gold exclusively in Paleozoic rocks. He found no evidence to support the opinion that the large size of the nuggets in the gravel was due to a gradual growth through chemical precipitation.[a] He regarded such as more or less dentritic and branching masses which have been liberated from the gangue and reduced to pebble form by the pounding they received in the moving gravels.

Whitney's work on the auriferous gravels was followed in 1880 and 1882 by an equally comprehensive work on climatic changes of later geological times, the discussion being based largely on observations made during the work of the California survey.

Whitney's Climatic Changes, 1880–1882.

Whitney was struck by the appearance of recent desiccation in the West, as illustrated by the lake regions of the Great Basin, and from a study of the phenomena here met with as compared with those in other regions he was led to conclusions radically at variance with those commonly accepted by his co-workers. It will be remembered that in the work on the auriferous gravels he took the ground that there had been no appreciable change in elevation of the Sierras since the close of Cretaceous times, and he argued that the Tertiary auriferous gravels were laid down by the rivers of that period which flowed through broad channels, the present deep-cut V-shaped channels being due to the smaller volume of water which was the result of a decrease in annual precipitation.

Concerning such, he wrote:

> It is, as a general rule, safe to assume that where U-shaped valleys exist the perpendicular walls have an orographic origin and that those of V form have had that

[a] Recent work of A. Liversidge, the Australian mineralogist, confirms this view.

shape given to them by the débris piles which have accumulated against their sides. The farther we descend the mountain slope the less the grade and consequently the less the carrying power of the stream. Hence the valley which is U-shaped in the upper part of its course acquires more and more of a V form as it approaches the plain at the base of the range from which it heads.

Whitney thought to be able to trace, not to go too much into detail, a period of warmth and heavy precipitation followed by one of desiccation, but anticipated by one of cold and glaciation, the glaciers, however, being limited to the most elevated ranges of the Cordilleras. At the outset he announced himself as opposed to the "wild and absurd" ideas that had prevailed regarding glaciation in the Sierras, and stated it as his belief that here at least ice had played but an extremely subordinate part as a geological agent, though "there is no doubt that the great California range was once covered with grand glaciers, but little if at all inferior to those which now lend such a charm to the Swiss Alps."

In the discussion of the question he called attention to the fact that the Great Lakes of North America and most of those of other countries as well are included in areas underlain by Paleozoic rocks or those partly Paleozoic and partly Archean, and are due not to glacial erosion, but to orographic movements—Lake Superior, for instance, occupying a synclinal depression in Paleozoic rocks just along the edge of the Azoic series.

The Lake region of the Great Basin while likewise orographic in origin has become desiccated through climatic changes, he finding no evidence that there has been any essential alteration in the configuration or topography of the western side of the continent since the Glacial epoch—that is, since the time when the crests of the highest ranges were to some extent covered with snow and ice. Therefore, no part of the desiccation which appears to have taken place since that time can be due to orographic changes; the phenomenon must have been a climatological one.

The phenomenon of fiords he considered as due to aqueous erosion along mountainous coasts which have since become depressed.

It was Whitney's opinion, further, that the geological importance of the ice sheet had been greatly exaggerated. It seemed to him beyond question that the icebergs had played an important part in carrying and distributing the large angular bowlders which in many places rest upon the surface in such a manner as to show that they could not have been placed in their present position by running water or by a general ice sheet.

He regarded it as evident enough that the climate of northeastern America during the Glacial epoch was a period of greater precipitation than is now taking place, but that it was a period of intense cold he would not admit. Glaciation or a Glacial period was due merely to increased precipitation. In order that such precipitation should take

place an increased evaporation from the land and water was necessary. This could be brought about only by a general increase of temperature, the amount of precipitation being the same; whether it would or not give rise to glaciers would depend upon temperature, which itself would be dependent upon local conditions which might or might not be due to elevation of land surfaces. His idea, in brief, was that while during the Glacial epoch over the entire globe there might be a period of sufficient warmth to produce the desired evaporation, the precipitation would fall as rain or snow, according to the local uplift or depression. That the glaciers are now retreating in nearly every instance he regarded as due not so much to a change in climate—at least, not to a gradual increase of temperature—but rather to a gradual decrease in the amount of annual precipitation. He felt that "The weight of the highest authorities is decidely against the theories of both Adhemar and Croll, from the standpoint of astronomical science; while it is believed that these theories are equally at variance with the conclusions of the most eminent climatologists of the present day. At all events, the evidence in favor of a cyclical recurrence of cold, or Glacial periods, sinks into insignificance when compared with that indicating a progressive diminution of temperature on the earth's surface during the geological ages, and from the very earliest time when land began to exist from the conditions of which light on this subject could be procured.

In this connection it may be mentioned that Whitney considered the movement of glacial ice due to water:

> Glacier ice is not simply ice, but a mixture of ice and water, and it is to the presence of the latter that the whole mass owes its flexibility. The larger the amount of water, other things being equal, the more easily the glacial mass moves. When the water increases so as to get the upper hand, the ice gives way with a rush and becomes an avalanche. * * * The extreme variation of the rate of motion of different glaciers coming down from the inland ice of Greenland is due to the different amounts of water which they have imbibed.[a]

Second Geological Survey of Pennsylvania, 1874–1887.

The rapid development of the economic resources of Pennsylvania, particularly coal, iron, and petroleum, during the years intervening between the publication of Rogers's final report (1858) and 1874, aroused a great public demand for more detailed knowledge of geological facts. An appeal was, therefore, made to the State legislature in 1873 for the establishment of a second geological survey. This culminated in 1874 in an enactment providing for the appointment of ten commissioners, having authority to appoint a State geologist "of ability and experience" who should, with ten competent assistants, make such investigations as might be required to elucidate the geology of the State and put the

[a] It should be noted that Whitney's ideas were reviewed in a somewhat critical manner by G. K. Gilbert in Science for March 9, 16, and 23, 1883.

results of this and previous work, of either individuals or surveys, into a convenient form for reference.

Acting under this authority the commissioners in 1874 appointed as State geologist J. P. Lesley, a topographer of the first survey under Rogers, and subsequently connected, in the capacity of topographer and geologist, with various private surveys—a one-time clergyman, and then professor of geology in the University of Pennsylvania. Annual appropriations were made, amounting during the thirteen years in which the survey existed to $545,000. Under these seemingly favorable auspices the second survey was inaugurated. With Lesley was associated from time to time, in one capacity or another, a considerable number of individuals, among whom mention may be made of C. A. Ashburner, C. E. Beecher, J. C. Branner, J. F. Carll, H. M. Chance, E. W. Claypole, E. V. d'Invilliers, L. G. Eakins, Persifor Frazer, F. A. Genth, C. E. Hall, T. S. Hunt, A. E. Lehman, Leo Lesquereux, A. S. McCreath, F. Prime, jr., J. J. Stevenson, I. C. White, Arthur Winslow, and G. F. Wright.

From the work of this organization has sprung the most remarkable series of reports ever issued by any survey. Up to and including 1887, when field work was practically discontinued, there had appeared some 77 octavo volumes of text, with 35 atlases, and a "Grand Atlas." These were followed in 1892 and 1895 by the three octavo volumes constituting the final report.

A very large portion of the work of this survey fell beyond the time limits mentally set for the present history. It may, however, be stated that the main energies of the organization were directed toward the solving of economic problems,[a] and, as was the case with the Rogers survey which preceded it, more attention was devoted to chemical and physical than to paleontological questions. Lesquereux, who had been responsible for what paleobotanical work was done under Rogers, was commissioned to extend his investigations, and in 1880 and 1884 issued three reports of text and one atlas on the Coal Flora. The strictly paleontological work done from 1875 to 1880 was that of J. J. Stevenson and I. C. White, along the West Virginia, Ohio, and New York borders.

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[a] I have been obliged for the last fourteen years to direct the State survey almost exclusively in an economic direction, so as to make the whole of every appropriation bring as much fruit to the business community as possible, neglecting, in what systematic geologists may possibly or probably consider a shameful manner, strictly scientific researches. Even when I have ordered long and extensive scientific researches (as in the case of the analyses of the Lower Silurian limestone series opposite Harrisburg) it has been, not in the spirit of transcendental science, but with the express intention to use the results directly as applied science to the economical demands of the State. It can hardly be understood by outsiders how completely a State bureau is shut up to this necessity.

Yours, respectfully,

J. P. Lesley.

In 1881 and 1883 Professor White studied the fossils of the middle belt of counties on the Delaware, Susquehanna, and the upper Juniata rivers. Professor Stevenson did the same for the Maryland border, while E. W. Claypole was commissioned to prepare a special report on all forms discoverable in the district of the lower Juniata.

The main energies of the survey were, as above noted, devoted to economic problems, with particular reference to the extent both geographic and geologic of the coal and petroleum formations. A great amount of good was undoubtedly accomplished, perhaps as much as one has a right to expect. Work in later years has, however, showed that the fundamental defect of the survey was lack of accurate topographical maps. This seems the more remarkable in view of the fact that the same defect became obvious during the progress of the Rogers survey, and further, in that Lesley was, himself, a topographer.

To quote Lesley's own words (manuscript), the facts of dominant importance which became impressed upon the Pennsylvania survey were as follows:

(1) The Paleozoic formations reach their maximum thickness in this State; and consequently admit of a greater differentiation than elsewhere into special groups of beds.

(2) The middle region of the State is magnificently plicated and eroded, exposing innumerable outcrops, connected in zigzags, and of immense length.

(3) No unconformable later deposits cover and conceal these outcrops, so that there is an unexampled opportunity for the study of variable thickness and changes of type.

(4) The topographical features are so dependent upon the lithology and structure that any geological survey of the region must be virtually a topographical survey.

(5) The geological areas are of great size and so clearly defined, and so distinct in character, that they naturally claimed and received each one a survey of its own. These areas are: 1, The Bituminous Coal field of the west and north; 2, the Anthracite Coal fields in the east; 3, the middle belt of Devonian and Silurian formations; 4, the Mesozoic belt of the south and east; 5, the South Mountain Azoic; 6, the Philadelphia belt of Azoic rock; and 7, the region of Glacial Drift.

(6) The natural section of the Bituminous Coal Measures, down the Monongahela and up the Allegheny rivers, relieved the study of that part of the Paleozoic system of all ambiguity.

(7) The great amount of mining done in the anthracite fields made that part of the survey peculiarly exact and correct.

(8) The great size and number of the brown hematite mines furnished unusual opportunities for the study of that kind of mineral.

(9) The great size and number of limestone quarries, exploited for the manufacture of iron and for fertilizing farms, opened to view every part of the great Siluro-Cambrian formation, the whole of the Lower Helderberg, all the Devonian, and most of the Carboniferous limestone beds.

(10) On the other hand, Pennsylvania is singularly destitute of workable veins of the precious metals. Its poverty in gold, silver, copper, and lead is extreme. It has but one important zinc deposit; and but one nickel mine.[a] In fact its Azoic regions as a whole are barren country, containing but a few small magnetic iron ore beds, in

[a] Not worked since 1891.

strong contrast to the adjoining Azoic region of northern New Jersey. What little white marble it possesses makes a narrow outcrop for a few miles along a single line. Some serpentine rock, a little chrome iron, one large soapstone quarry, and some kaolin deposits conclude the list of its Azoic minerals.

Practically viewed, the geology of Pennsylvania is wholly Paleozoic, on the most magnificent scale, with an unexampled wealth of anthracite and bituminous coal, brown hematite iron ore, limestone, rock oil, and rock gas; and to the study and description of these its geological survey has from first to last been devoted.

Little attention has been paid to the lithological study of the building stones of the State, or to their economic description. The entire State is a rock quarry. Every known building stone from the granites, gneisses, quartzites, and traps, to hearthstones, flagstones, brownstone, and limestone can be got with ease and with infinite abundance on lines of transportation. All the principal outcrops of these building stone formations have been located and their places in the Paleozoic series defined in the reports, with sufficiently precise descriptions of their qualities and uses; but beyond this the survey could not go.

Lesley was born in Philadelphia in 1819, and graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1838, becoming almost immediately connected with the State geological survey under Rogers, in the capacity of topographer. In 1841, during the temporary suspension of this work, he entered upon the study of theology at Princeton, and was licensed to preach in 1844. He then went to Europe, where he studied in the University of Halle during the winter of 1844–45.

Sketch of Lesley.

FIG. 96.—J. Peter Lesley.

Returning to America, he assumed the pastorate of a Congregational church in Milford, Massachusetts, but resigned in 1851 and owing, it is stated, to a change in his religious views, gave up the ministry altogether. Returning to Philadelphia, he soon became secretary of the Iron and Steel Association and of the American Philosophical Society, and prominent in geological matters, particularly those relating to iron and coal. Had he so chosen, he could undoubtedly have acquired a fortune, but, preferring science for science' sake, he put aside all offers of private gain and remained poor, often desperately so, to the end of his days.

He was a man of tall, lank, but commanding figure, and, according to his biographer, of impressionable and emotional nature, an enthusiast and optimist, but often lamentably melancholy, undemonstrative, and even cynical. A man of tremendous nervous energy, aggressive and outspoken, his writings are full of expressions which, for terseness and unpolished emphasis, are unequaled. Thus, in a letter to Powell relative to the coloring of maps and the names of the various formations, he wrote:

The fact is these English names are good for nothing in America and ought to be ignored. If I were an expert in profanity, I should say damn the text-books, Dana's, Le Conte's, and all of them. They are mere museums of embarrassments, so far as classification is in question. * * * Fortunately Pennsylvania is a very small corner of the United States, and I suppose it matters very little whether its structure appears on your map or not. But in heaven's name (I mean the heaven of geology), what do you gain by distinguishing a miserable subformation like the Permian (one or two patches) and not distinguishing an enormous subformation 5,000 feet thick like the Subcarboniferous?[a]

THE WORK OF F. V. HAYDEN AND F. B. MEEK.

The reports of D. D. Owen and Dr. John Evans on the collections made by the latter in the *mauvaises terres* of the White River in 1849, as published in 1852, had attracted a great deal of attention, and in the spring of 1853 Dr. F. V. Hayden and F. B. Meek were employed by Prof. James Hall to visit the "Bad Lands" to make collections of fossils.

Hayden and Meek in the Bad Lands, 1853–1866.

The party met at St. Louis on Saturday, May 14, 1853, where they found Dr. John Evans bent upon a similar errand under the direction of Dr. B. F. Shumard. Leaving St. Louis, the party proceeded by boat up the Missouri, reaching Fort Pierre—what is now the town of Pierre, in South Dakota—June 21, whence they proceeded by wagon into the Bad Lands proper. Here, in spite of the difficulty of holding the party together through fear of hostile Indians, they remained for a period of several weeks, returning to Fort Pierre on July 18. They brought with them a large and valuable collection, including mammalian remains which were investigated by Dr. Joseph Leidy.

The Cretaceous invertebrate fossils were studied by Professors Hall and Meek and described by them in a memoir published by the American Society of Arts and Sciences of Boston in 1854. This paper was accompanied by a brief vertical section by Meek, showing the order of superposition of the Cretaceous beds. As this is believed to be the first section of the region, it is here reproduced in full:

Section of the Members of the Cretaceous Formation as observed on the Missouri River, and thence Westward to the Mauvaises Terres.

Eocene Tertiary formation:

Clays, sandstones, etc., containing remains of Mammalia. The entire thickness of this formation in the Bad Lands is from 25 to 250 feet.

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[a] Some of Lesley's "digs" at his fellow-workers are masterpieces of their kind. Thus in Volume I of his final report, where attempting to describe the chaotic conditions existing on the earth during the earliest Archean times, and the intense chemical activity incidental to the deluges of "sour rain" falling upon the hot surface, he says (p. 53): "All this had taken place before the first age of which we have any geological monuments and is only known to God and Dr. Sterry Hunt, who has described it magnificently in his Chemical Researches."

Cretaceous formation:

5. Arenaceous clay passing into argillo-calcareous sandstone. 80 feet.
4. Plastic clay with calcareous concretions containing numerous fossils. 250 to 350 feet.

This is the principal fossiliferous bed of the Cretaceous formation upon the Upper Missouri.

3. Calcareous marl, containing Ostrea congesta, scales of fishes, etc. 100 to 150 feet.
2. Clay containing few fossils. 80 feet.
1. Sandstone and clay. 90 feet.

Buff-colored magnesian limestone of the Carboniferous period.

In the following spring (1854) Doctor Hayden again ascended the Missouri River, this time partly under the auspices of the American Fur Company. He spent two years on this expedition, during which time he visited the various portions of the Upper Missouri, being without any other means than what he earned or secured in various ways as he went along, and dependent even for subsistence entirely on such friends as he met in the country, among whom were Col. A. J. Vaughan, the Indian agent, and Mr. Alexander Culbertson, of the American Fur Company.

Hayden's Work on the Upper Missouri, 1854.

He traversed the Missouri River to Fort Benton and the Yellowstone to the mouth of the Big Horn, and also considerable portions of other districts not immediately bordering on the Missouri. As the boats of the fur company had to be towed in ascending the river, the progress was necessarily slow. The time thus occupied by the boats was utilized by Hayden on the shores, and as a result he traversed a considerable portion of the journey on foot.

The vertebrate remains collected on this trip were, as in a previous case, described by Doctor Leidy, mainly in papers read before the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, while the invertebrates were described by Doctor Hayden himself in connection with Professor Meek. The collections, which were deposited partly with the Academy of Science of St. Louis and partly with the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, contained a larger number of species than all those previously known from that country, many of them being new and of a remarkable character.

Early in 1856 Hayden returned to St. Louis, and on February 15 of that year received from Lieut. G. K. Warren, of the U. S. Corps of Topographical Engineers, an offer to report upon the Sioux country. This report was made, and in May of the same year Warren appointed him one of his assistants in the exploration of the Yellowstone River and the Missouri River from Fort Pierre to a point 60 miles north of the mouth of the Yellowstone.

Hayden with Warren in the Sioux Country, 1856.

The field work of this expedition began on June 28, the party returning to Fort Pierre on October 22, and reaching Washington in

November. In May, 1857, Hayden was again appointed geologist by Lieutenant Warren, this time on an expedition to the Black Hills. The party was organized at Sioux City in June and proceeded up the Loup Fork of the Platte, returning to Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, early in the following December.

Hayden with Warren in the Black Hills, 1857.

Hayden noted the occurrence of—

1. Metamorphic Azoic rocks, including granite.
2. Lower Silurian (Potsdam).
3. Devonian (?).
4. Carboniferous.
5. Permian.
6. Jurassic.
7. Cretaceous.
8. Tertiary.
9. Post-Tertiary and Quaternary.

In a preliminary report given by Warren in the American Journal of Science for May, 1859, attention was called to the important physiographic fact that the Niobrara River seemed "to run along a swell or ridge on the surface and to be practically without tributaries."

This would seem to be a recognition of the fact, though not the principle, that streams flowing from a mountainous country and laden with silt may, in their lower levels where the current is less rapid and the carrying power less, so deposit their load as to build up both the bottom and banks, and this until the stream actually occupies the crest of a ridge. The Platte River is, however, a better illustration of this than is the Niobrara. That portion of the channel running between steep bluffs he thought "must have originated in a fissure in the rocks which the water basins enlarged and made more uniform in size." This failure at this late day to realize that a stream may carve out its own channel can be excused only on the ground that Warren was not a geologist.

During the summer of 1858 Messrs. Hayden and Meek explored a portion of what was then called the Territory of Kansas. The route followed, as given by Hayden in his report published in the Proceedings of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, was as follows:

Meek and Hayden in Kansas, 1858.

From Leavenworth City on the Missouri, across the country to Indianola near the mouth of Soldier Creek and the Kansas River; thence up the north side of Kansas and Smoky Hill rivers to the mouth of Solomons Fork. Here they crossed the Smoky Hill, following it up on the south side to a point near the ninety-eighth degree of west longitude, from which point they struck across the country in a southwest direction to the Santa Fe road, which was followed northeastward to the head of Cottonwood Creek.

Leaving the road here, they went down the Cottonwood Valley some 30 miles, when they turned due east to Council Grove, from which place

FIG. 97.—Map showing routes of Raynold's Expedition in 1859-60, and area covered by Hayden's report.

the Santa Fe road was followed southwest for about 24 miles to a watering place known as Lost Springs. Here they struck across the country in a northwest direction to Smoky Hill River again at a point

nearly opposite the mouth of Solomons Fork. Thence the route lay down the south side of Smoky Hill and Kansas rivers to Lawrence, and thence across the Kansas in a northeastward direction to Leavenworth city. The explorations were very successful, and the results embodied in numerous papers in the Proceedings of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia and elsewhere.

Hayden with Raynolds's Expedition, 1859.

In April, 1859, Capt. W. F. Raynolds was instructed to organize an expedition for the exploration of the country from which flow the upper tributaries of the Yellowstone River and of the mountains in which these tributaries and the Gallatin and Madison forks of the Missouri have their source. On April 22 Doctor Hayden was appointed surgeon and naturalist of this expedition. The party left St. Louis May 28, 1859, going up the Missouri to Fort Pierre, which point was reached about the middle of June. From here the route was westward and northwestward to the Yellowstone River by way of the Cheyenne, the Belle Fourche, and Powder rivers. The Yellowstone was reached near the mouth of the Big Horn about the middle of August. From the Yellowstone the expedition turned southward early in September and followed up the Big Horn, skirting the eastern edge of the Big Horn Mountains, finally going into winter quarters on Deep Creek, near the North Platte River, about the middle of October.

The following May (1860) explorations were resumed, the expedition going to Fort Benton, on the Missouri, by way of the North Platte, Wind, Snake, and Madison rivers. Fort Benton was reached July 14. On the 23d of July the return trip to Omaha was begun, the party proceeding by boat down the Missouri River to Fort Union, and from the latter point by land. Omaha was reached October 4, where the party disbanded.

The report of this last expedition, published early in 1869, comprised some 174 octavo pages, including 30 pages of paleontological notes by J. S. Newberry. It was accompanied by a colored geological map of the region north of the forty-second parallel and lying between the ninety-eighth and one hundred and fourteenth meridians (fig. 97).

Some of the more important conclusions arrived at by Hayden as a result of observations on these expeditions are as follows: He announced in 1857 the discovery of Potsdam sandstone in the country about the headwaters of the Yellowstone, and in a preliminary publication in the American Journal of Science for 1861 described it as more or less changed by heat from beneath. The other formations noted were Carboniferous (including Permian?), red arenaceous deposits overlying the Carboniferous, but of uncertain age; Jurassic, Cretaceous, and Tertiary deposits. During the long interval that elapsed between the deposition of the earliest part of the Silurian and the commencement of the Carboniferous,

Summary of Hayden's Early Work.

he believed dry land to have prevailed over a large portion of the West, and he found no evidence of deep-water deposits until far up into the Cretaceous. Near the close of this epoch the waters of the great Cretaceous seas receded toward the present position of the Atlantic on the one side and the Pacific on the other, leaving large areas in the central West dry land with but a slight elevation above the sea level. He showed that the White River Tertiary deposits were younger than the Lignite, and that the older members of the western Tertiary were clearly separable into four divisions exclusive of the Pliocene of the Niobrara. He believed that the estuarian deposits ushered in the dawn of the Tertiary epoch and that they belonged to the Eocene period. The evidence of the fossils was regarded as indicating that a much milder climate prevailed throughout the West during the greater part of the Tertiary than at present—a climate somewhat similar to that of the Gulf States at the present day.

In an article on the Primordial sandstone of the Rocky Mountains, published in the American Journal of Science for 1862, he announced the finding of undoubted evidence of the existence of the equivalent of the Potsdam sandstone of the New York series in two important outliers of the Rocky Mountain chain. He pointed out the singular uniformity in the nature of the sediments and general lithological resemblance to the eastern type, but did not regard this as due to the currents bringing the material from the East. He thought, rather, that the uniformity was due to a similar uniformity on the part of the underlying rocks from which sediments were derived—that is, he believed that the source of all the sediments composing the Primordial rocks in the West could be traced to underlying rocks in the immediate vicinity. He noted the gradual thinning out of this Primordial sandstone toward the West, and quoted the observations of D. D. Owen in Minnesota, Whitney in Iowa, Safford in Tennessee, and Shumard in Texas as confirmatory. The lower secondary formations, on the other hand, as he pointed out, gradually increased in thickness.

He noted no unconformability in any of the fossiliferous sedimentary rocks of the Northwest from the Potsdam sandstone to the summits of the true Lignite Tertiary, but found proof of two great periods of disturbance, the one prior to the deposition of Potsdam sandstone, when the Azoic or granitic rocks were elevated to a more or less inclined position, and the other, much the more important, at the close of the Lignite Tertiary, when the "massive nuclei of the ranges were raised above the surrounding country."

In the American Journal of Science for 1862 Hayden had an important paper in regard to the period of elevation of the ranges of the Rocky Mountains near the sources of the Missouri River and its tributaries. He regarded the evidence as clear that the great subterranean

forces which elevated the western portion of the continent were called into operation toward the close of the Cretaceous epoch, and that the gradual rising continued without a general bursting of the earth's surface until the accumulation of the Tertiary lignite deposits, or at least the greater part of them. Also, that after the fracture of the surface commenced and the great crustal movements began to display themselves, the whole country continued rising, though perhaps with intervening periods of subsidence, up to and even including the present period.

During the years of the civil war western exploration of all kinds was interrupted. Hayden served in the Federal army as a surgeon from 1862 until 1865, resigning to accept the position of professor of mineralogy and geology in the University of Pennsylvania, a position which he retained until 1872.

In the summer of 1866 he undertook a second expedition to the Bad Lands, this time under the auspices of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. In company with James Stevenson he left Fort Randall, South Dakota, August 3. The trip was made with a six-mule team and occupied fifty-two days, during which a circuit of six hundred and fifty miles was accomplished. The large and valuable collection of mammalian fossils was described by Leidy in his great work of upward of 450 large octavo pages and 30 plates, published under the auspices of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. The work began with an introduction of 12 pages on the geology of the Tertiary formations of Dakota and Nebraska, accompanied by a map. In this work Hayden pointed out the possibility of bridging over the chasm heretofore existing between the Cretaceous and Tertiary periods by means of transition beds belonging to the lignite series. He reiterated some of the statements made in previous writings, to the effect that, at the close of the Cretaceous period, the Rocky Mountain area was occupied by the waters of an ocean with perhaps a few peaks projecting. Near the close of the period the surface had reached an elevation so great as to form long lines of separation between the waters of the Atlantic on the East and those of the Pacific on the West, and then this great watershed began to rise above the surrounding country and the period of great fresh-water lakes was inaugurated. The elevation during the Cretaceous period he regarded as slow and gradual, but at about the close of the period or in the early part of the Tertiary the limit of tension in the crust was reached and long lines of fracture commenced which form the nucleus of the present mountain ranges, including the lofty continuous ranges with a granitoid nucleus along the eastern portion of the Rocky Mountains, as the Wind River, Big Horn, Laramie, or Black Hills. He showed that the Tertiary beds were in part deposited before the upheaval, as indicated by the inclination of the lignite beds.

Hayden's Second Expedition to the Bad Lands, 1866.

The lower Tertiary fossils included brackish-water forms, and he thought to trace the "history of the growth of the continent step by step from the purely marine waters of the Cretaceous ocean to the period when the mountain ranges were elevated," the ocean waters excluded and inclosed lakes formed, at first salt, but gradually freshened by influx from fresh-water streams. He stated further that the elevating forces acted throughout the Tertiary and post-Tertiary periods, and probably continue to act down to the present time. During the Tertiary period there existed at least four and possibly five of these fresh-water lakes in the West, two of which were of great extent. The deposits in these lakes formed the bad lands of the Judith, the great Lignite basin, the Wind River basin, and the White River group. A portion of this last, that in the region of the White River, he regarded as of Miocene age.

THE U. S. GEOLOGICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEYS UNDER F. V. HAYDEN.

In the spring of 1867 Hayden, acting under the direction of the General Land Office, and with an appropriation from Congress amounting to $5,000, began his work as U. S. geologist in Nebraska, and in so doing laid the foundation for the U. S. Geological Survey as it exists to-day. Hayden was assisted during the first year by Dr. C. A. White and F. B. Meek. His first annual report comprised 64 octavo pages, and dealt largely with the possible occurrence of workable beds of coal within the State (decided in the negative); the loess, which he regarded as silt brought down by streams and deposited in a fresh-water lake, and considerations relative to the distribution of the Cretaceous and Tertiary deposits.

Work of Hayden in Nebraska, 1867.

In 1868 the appropriation of $5,000 was renewed and the field of work extended into Wyoming. In his report of 102 pages he called attention to the probable Tertiary age of all the coal of both Wyoming and Colorado. In 1869 $10,000 was appropriated and the field of work transferred to Colorado and New Mexico, the survey being at the same time placed under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior. His assistants for this survey were James Stevenson; Henry W. Elliott, artist; Persifor Frazer, mining engineer and metallurgist; Cyrus Thomas, entomologist and botanist; E. C. Carrington, zoologist, and B. H. Cheever, jr.

Work of Hayden in Wyoming, 1868.

Work of Hayden in Colorado and New Mexico, 1869.

In this report he confirmed the statement made by him in the American Journal of Science for March, 1868—

> that all the lignite Tertiary beds of the West are but fragments of one great basin, interrupted here and there by the upheaval of mountain chains or concealed by the deposition of newer formations.

Sir Joseph Hooker. Prof. Asa Gray, Mrs. Gray, Dr. R. H. Lamborn, Gen. Richard Strachy, Mrs. Strachy, James Stevenson. F. V. Hayden.

HAYDEN FIELD PARTY AT LA VETA PASS, AUGUST, 1877.

He pointed out that the main range of the Rocky Mountains "is really a gigantic anticlinal and all the lower ranges and ridges * * * only monoclinals, descending steplike to the plains on each side of the central axis." Also that there were two kinds of ranges in the Rocky Mountain system—one with a granitoid nucleus, with long lines of fracture, and in the aggregate possessing a specific trend; the other with a basaltic nucleus, composed of a series of volcanic cones or outbursts of igneous rocks, in many cases forming saw-like ridges like those of the Sierras.

He found no evidences of any unconformity between the Cretaceous and lower Tertiary beds and no such changes in the sediments as would account for the sudden and apparently complete destruction of organic life at the close of the Cretaceous period.

He visited the Salt Lake Valley and examined the terraces and old shore lines of Great Salt Lake, describing the beds as of post-Pliocene or Quaternary age and correlating them with the terraces noted by him above the Wasatch Canyon. He found this series of beds so widely extended and so largely developed in Weber and Salt Lake valleys that he regarded it as worthy of a distinct name, and in consequence called it the Salt Lake group. He afterwards (in 1871) limited the name to the older beds, which he considered as of later Pliocene age, recognizing the more modern character of the terraces in which he found a great abundance of fresh-water shells.

The question of priority in this region having arisen between the King and Hayden surveys, it may be well to state that, according to Dr. A. C. Peale, Hayden's first work in the Salt Lake Valley was done in the years 1868, 1869, and 1870, and the results published in February, 1869, during the latter part of 1869, and the early part of 1871. The report of the field work of 1870 in Wyoming was first printed in 1871, and a second edition issued in 1872.

In 1870, with appropriations increased to $25,000, Hayden's field of operations was transferred to Wyoming and portions of contiguous territories. Stevenson, Elliott, and Thomas were with him as before, while W. H. Jackson, photographer; John H. Beaman, meteorologist; A. L. Ford, mineralogist; C. P. Carrington, zoologist, and Henry D. Schmidt, naturalist, were added to the scientific corps.

Work of Hayden in Wyoming, 1870.

The party outfitted at Cheyenne, in Wyoming, and proceeded northward along the eastern base of the Laramie range, exploring the Platte River as far as the Red Buttes, and thence passing across the divide to the Sweetwater; thence to the source of the Wind River Mountains, passing down Big and Little Sandy creeks to Green River, and exploring the northern slope of the Uinta Mountains. From Fort Bridger the route lay southward to Henrys Fork, which was explored down to

its junction with Green River proper. From Green River Station the route followed the old stage route up Bitter Creek by way of Bridger Pass and the Medicine Bow Mountains, across the Laramie Plains, and through the Laramie Range by way of Cheyenne Pass, back to the point of departure.

Studies were made also along the line of the Pacific Railroad between Cheyenne and the Salt Lake Valley. No topographer accompanied the party, and the maps used were those constructed by the engineering department of the Army, which were, however, so inaccurate that to delineate the geology upon them in any but the most general way was practically impossible.

During this season Hayden worked out the sequence of the Carboniferous and Cretaceous rocks, and made the subdivisions of the latter into Dakota, Fort Pierre, and Fox Hill groups, which are still recognized. He remarked that some of the fossils found in southern Nebraska seemed to possess Permian affinities, though as they all extended down into the Coal Measures they could not be considered as characteristic, and therefore those rocks which he had previously mapped and colored as Permian should be relegated to the Permo-Carboniferous.

He noted the occurrence of Potsdam sandstone with *Obolella nana* and *Lingula* at South Pass on the south side of the Sweetwater. The massive granites as well as the intercalated stratified gneisses extending from South Pass City nearly to Pacific Springs were all regarded as of sedimentary origin. He showed that, near the close of the Cretaceous period, the ocean extended all over the area west of the Mississippi from the Arctic circle to the Isthmus of Darien. A little later the great watershed of the continent was marked out and the marine waters were separated into more or less shallow seas, lakes, and marshes, within which grew the abundant forests that went to form the coal beds.

From a study of the character of the vegetable impressions found in these beds, he argued that coal strata of contemporaneous origin may be purely marine, purely fresh water, or brackish, dependent upon local conditions. He pointed out that the sea had not had access to the Salt Lake Valley since middle Tertiary times, the sediments from 800 to 1,200 feet in thickness, called by him the Salt Lake group, being regarded as of Pliocene age and contemporaneous with the Niobrara, Arkansas, and Santa Fe groups, and of fresh water origin.

This report of Hayden was accompanied by special reports by Meek on the invertebrate paleontology, by Cope and Leidy on the vertebrate paleontology, by Lesquereux on paleobotany, and by Newberry on the ancient lakes of western North America. The volume marks the beginning of Cope's work with the Hayden survey, which resulted later in the production of the two monographs on the vertebrata of the

Cretaceous and Tertiary formations of the West, the latter, popularly known as "Cope's Primer," a pudgy volume of 1,009 pages and 134 full-page plates. With this year, too, began Jackson's work, which resulted in the production of what were at the time the finest landscape photographs ever taken, and which excited the wonder and admiration of geologists the world over.

In 1871, with an appropriation of $40,000, field operations were transferred to Montana and portions of adjacent territories, including what is now the Yellowstone Park. To the party of the year previous was added Anton Schönborn, topographer; G. N. Allen, botanist, and Dr. A. C. Peale, mineralogist. The route lay from Ogden, Utah, along the shore of Salt Lake to Willard City; thence through the Wasatch range to Cash Valley, and up the valley to the divide between the Salt Lake and Snake River basins. From this point they descended Marsh Creek to the Snake River basin and Fort Hall. Following the stage route to Virginia Junction, they crossed Black Tail Deer Creek near its source; thence down the Stinking Water to Virginia City; then, crossing the divide eastward to the Madison River, they descended the valley about 30 miles and crossed over the other divide to Fort Ellis, at the head of the Galkatin River. From Fort Ellis they passed again eastward over the divide between the Yellowstone and the Missouri to Bottler's ranch, where was established a permanent camp. A portion of the party then proceeded up the Yellowstone and entered the park area, surveying the mammoth hot springs on Gardners River, the Grand Canyon of the Yellowstone, the upper and lower geyser basins, and the lake. On returning to Bottler's ranch in August, they passed down the Yellowstone to Shields River and Fort Ellis, and thence down the Gallatin to Three Forks, up the Jefferson to the Beaver Head Branch and to

Work of Hayden Survey in Montana and the Yellowstone Park, 1871.

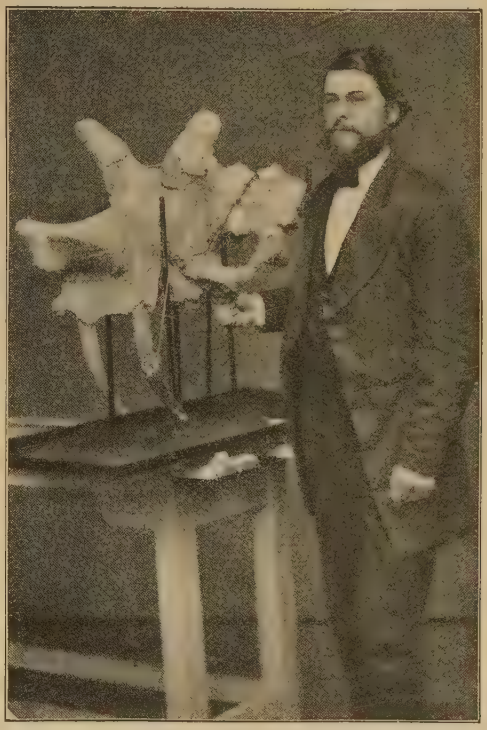


FIG. 98.—Edward Drinker Cope with skull of Loxolophodon cornutus.

Horse Plain Creek, and across the main Rocky Mountain divide to the headwaters of Medicine Lodge Creek, into the Snake River basin, to Fort Hall once more, and thence across the mountains to the head of Bear River and up the river to Evanston, on the Union Pacific Railroad, where the party disbanded.

As in years previous, Messrs. Cope, Lesquereux, Leidy, Meek, Newberry, and others served as collaborators in their especial fields. The hot springs and geysers were described in considerable detail, and the fact that they were but the feeble manifestations of dying volcanic energy recognized. It was shown that the mountain ranges passed over lie along the borders of synclinal valleys, which were originally the basins of fresh water lakes, and that all the ranges had a general north and south or northwest and southeast trend, and were here and there connected by cross chains; that the three main branches of the Missouri—the Madison, Jefferson, and Gallatin—flowed through valleys now extending to a width of 3 to 5 miles and now contracting to narrow canyons, the expansions of which had all been lake basins within late Tertiary and perhaps early quaternary times. The valleys were regarded as in part due to erosion, but for the most part as synclinal folds, the intervening mountain ridges being wedge-like masses of Carboniferous limestones.

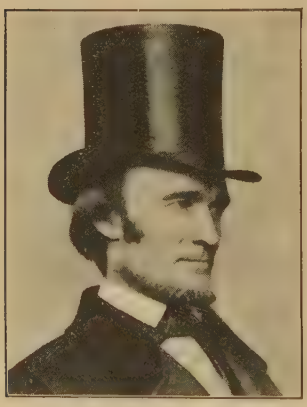


FIG. 99.—Fielding Bradford Meek.

The work done this year by Hayden and his party resulted in the setting aside of the Yellowstone region as a national park.

In 1872, with appropriations increased to $75,000, Hayden divided his force into two parties. The first, under his immediate charge, consisting of Adolf Burck, chief topographer; Henry Gannett, astronomer; A. E. Brown, assistant topographer; E. R. Wakefield, meteorologist; A. C. Peale, mineralogist; W. H. Holmes, artist, and W. B. Platt, naturalist.

Work of Hayden in Montana, 1872.

This division left Fort Ellis, Montana, and explored the headwaters of the Yellowstone, Gallatin, and Madison rivers in much more detail than had been done during the previous year.

The second or Snake River division, under the directorship of James Stevenson, included Frank H. Bradley, chief geologist; W. R. Taggert, assistant geologist; Gustavus R. Bechler, chief topographer; Adolph Herring and Thomas W. Jaycox, assistant topographers; William Nicholson, meteorologist; John M. Coulter, botanist; Dr. Josiah Curtis, surgeon and naturalist, and William H. Jackson, photographer. This division visited the Snake River or Lewis Fork of the Columbia in Idaho and Wyoming territories, a region up to that time little

known. The Teton Mountains—a prominent range—were ascended by Stevenson on this trip, this being the first time, it was claimed, that the feat had been accomplished by a white man.

Professors Leidy and Cope spent a large part of the summer in studying the ancient lake basins in the interior, and obtained the materials described in Volumes 1 and 2 of the quarto final reports. Lesquereux spent several months in exploring the coal beds to ascertain their geological position, and F. B. Meek and H. M. Bannister studied the invertebrates.[a]

From a preliminary study Lesquereux was inclined to call the lignite beds mostly Eocene. Meek regarded them as Upper Cretaceous, passing through transition beds to the Eocene, and Cope regarded them as Cretaceous. Hayden in this report gives, himself, a brief review of the opinions held and the evidence on which same is based, and concluded that the deposition of the lignite strata began during the latter portion of the Cretaceous period and continued on into Tertiary time without any marked physical break, so that many of the Cretaceous types, especially of the vertebrates, may have lingered on through the transition period even into the Tertiary epoch.

FIG. 100.—Frank Howe Bradley.

In this report Hayden called attention to one feature in the geological structure of the mountains of Montana observed by the survey during the past season for the first time and not noticed in such a marked degree in any other portion of the West, and that is the inversion of the sedimentary beds, so that the oldest incline at a greater or less angle on those of more modern ages. As illustrative of this, he gave an east and west section across the Flathead Pass in the East Gallatin range, the central portion of this range being composed of Carboniferous limestone standing nearly vertically. A similar illustration of inversion was given by Peale in his report on the geology of Jackass Creek on the upper Missouri River.

Another point to which Hayden called attention in this report was the fact that the streams "seem to have cut their way directly through the mountain ranges instead of following synclinal depressions," indicating, to his mind, that they began the process of erosion at the time of the commencement of the elevation of the surface. (See also Powell, p. 566.) The period of intense volcanic activity manifested in the Yellowstone region he thought to have probably commenced somewhere during later Miocene or early Pliocene epochs.

[a] Bannister also reported on a geological reconnaissance along the Union Pacific Railroad this same year.

With Cope, Leidy, and Marsh all in the field of vertebrate paleontology at one time, it is not strange that a spirit of rivalry, if not of personal jealousy, should have arisen. This found expression in numerous instances which at this date are only amusing, however serious they may at the time have seemed to those most interested. Thus, Cope in 1868 described and figured remains of a marine saurian from the Cretaceous of Kansas, to which he gave the name of *Elasmosaurus platyurus*. Leidy, ever on the alert, made a reexamination of the materials, and at the meeting of the Philadelphia Academy on March 8, 1870, announced that the remains were, in reality, those of an Enaliosaurian and closely allied to Plesiosaurus, and, further, that Cope's error in identification lay in his having described the animal the skeleton of which was without a skull and quite incomplete in a reversed position from the true one.[a]

FIG. 101.—Joseph Leidy.

Work of Hayden Survey in Colorado, 1873-1876.

In 1873, with appropriations the same as for the previous season, the field of operations was transferred to Colorado, this in part owing to the expense of transportation, subsistence, and labor in regions so remote as those of the upper Missouri, and in part to the hostility of the Indians. The party rendezvoused at Denver. The area decided upon to be surveyed comprised the eastern portion of the mountainous part of Colorado, and was divided into three districts known as the North, Middle, and Southern. The personnel and their assignments were as follows:

The first or Middle Park division, directed by A. R. Marvine, assistant geologist, with G. R. Bechler, topographer, and S. B. Ladd, assistant topographer. The second or South Park division, with Henry Gannett as topographer in charge; Dr. A. C. Peale, geologist;

[a] Another illustration of hasty work—in this case through fear of anticipation by Marsh—is furnished by Cope while with the Hayden survey in Wyoming in this year (1872). Finding certain fragmentary vertebrate remains which he believed to represent new species, he actually sent the following telegram to the Philadelphia Academy in order to secure priority of publication:

BLACK BUTTES, WYOMING, *Aug. 17, 1872.*

I have discovered in southern Wyoming the following species:

Loxolophodon Cope. Incis. 1, one canine tusk, pm. 4, with one crescent and inner tubercle; molars 2, size gigantic. *L. cornutus*, horns tripedral, cylindric; nasals with short convex lobes. *L. furcatus*, nasals with long spatulate lobes. *L. pressicornis*, horns compressed subacuminate.

EDWARD D. COPE,
U. S. Geological Survey.

W. R. Taggert, assistant geologist; Henry W. Stuckle, assistant topographer, and J. H. Batty, naturalist. The third or San Luis division was in charge of A. D. Wilson, topographer, with George M. Chittenden, assistant topographer, and Dr. F. M. Endlich, geologist.

The work of this year extended as far westward in Colorado as Middle Park, the Elk Mountains, and the San Luis Park. It was during this season's work that the peculiar examples of subaerial erosion of Monument Park in Colorado were described and figured, which have so frequently served the purpose of reproduction in the text-books. The wonderful instances of complete overturning of immense groups of beds, as illustrated in the Elk Range, were again referred to, attention being called to the fact that for several miles there is a double series from the Silurian up to the Cretaceous, inclusive, which had been thus inverted. In this report, too, were given the examples of inversion in the Snow Mass Range and the view on Roches Moutonnés Creek, both of which have served their purpose in the text-books of Dana and Le Conte.

FIG. 102.—Frederic Miller Endlich.

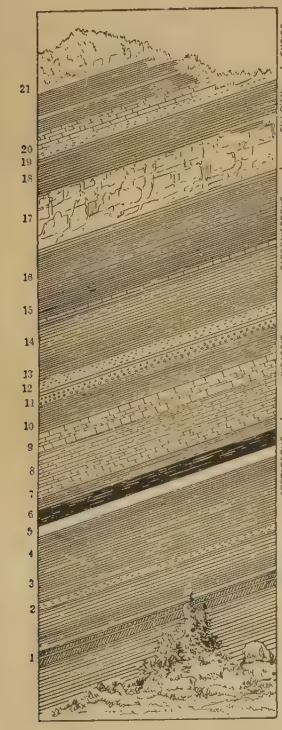


FIG. 103.—Inverted beds of Jackass Creek. (After A. C. Peale.)

The question of the age of the lignite beds occupied the attention of nearly all the workers in the field (see p. 647). Lesquereux, in his chapter on the lignite flora, argued in favor of the Eocene and Miocene age of the beds. Though not denying the presence of animal Cretaceous remains in the lignite strata, he regarded the "presence of some scattered fragments of Cretaceous shells as of little moment in comparison with the well-marked characters of the flora." Meek's invertebrate work, moreover, he regarded as rather in favor of the Tertiary hypothesis. To Cope's conclusions "that a Tertiary flora was contemporaneous with a Cretaceous fauna, establishing an uninterrupted succession of life across what is generally regarded as one of the greatest breaks in geological time," he took exception, as it did not appear to exactly conform to facts.

During the years 1874 to 1876 work under essentially the same conditions was continued by the Hayden survey throughout Colorado, the appropriations being $75,000 annually, with the exception of 1876, when they dropped to $65,000. The individual work of Hayden himself becomes gradually less conspicuous in the reports issued, owing to the increased amount of administrative work.

FIG. 104.—Albert Charles Peale.

In 1874 the party under direction of A. R. Marvine was engaged in the southern portion of North Park; that under Dr. A. C. Peale in the region bounded on the north by the Eagle and Grand rivers, on the east by the one hundred and seventh meridian, on the west by the State line, and on the south by latitude 38° 20′. The third division under A. D. Wilson, with F. M. Endlich, geologist, was assigned to what is known as the San Juan district, and the fourth, under the immediate direction of Doctor Hayden, with W. H. Holmes as artist and geologist, to the Elk Mountain region.

In the report for 1874 Hayden devoted considerable attention to the stratigraphic position of the Lignite group, a discussion of which may be referred to later. Perhaps the most striking feature brought out in the work of this year was that relative to the Elk Mountains. This range was regarded by Hayden as a grand illustration of an eruptive range, "the immense faults, complete overturning of thousands of feet of strata, and the great number of peaks, all composed of eruptive rocks," indicating to him periods of violent and catastrophic action. The great thickness of sedimentary strata which had been carried to the loftiest points of the axial ridge in a nearly horizontal position he thought might be explained on the supposition that at one time the sedimentary mass rested on a floor of pasty or semipasty granite, and that the forces in the interior were struggling to find vent and carried upward the entire overlying mass. This description is of interest when taken in connection with one by Marvine the year previous as showing the gradual inception of the laccolithic idea afterwards worked out in detail by Holmes, Peale, and Gilbert, to which I will now refer.

FIG. 105.—Archibald Robertson Marvine.

In describing the Sierra La Sal south of the Gunnison in the report for 1875, Peale compared them in structure with the Elk Mountains—that is, as of eruptive origin. "By this," he wrote, "I mean that the sedimentary strata have been lifted up by eruptive rock which has broken through them in some places, and in others is seen only as the result of subsequent erosion." As illustrative of this, he gave the figure reproduced here. (Fig. 106.)

The idea thus advanced seems to have been contagious, for in the same report Holmes described the Sierra El Late as formed of a number of distinct bodies of trachytic rock that had reached their present horizon through closely associated vents, frequently bending up the sedimentary rocks at a high angle around the borders, the upturned strata including the lower part of the Middle Cretaceous shales and portions of the Dakota sandstone. His observations tended to show, to quote his own words, "that there had been a sort of absorption, so to speak, of the shales, and that at least half of the space through which the trachyte is distributed is occupied by the crushed and metamorphosed fragments of shale. As a consequence the height of the arch—such as may once have existed would not equal the height of the trachytic mass, as only the higher layers of shale extend entirely over it. His idea regarding the formation of this mountain can be best understood by reference to fig. 107, copied from Plate 46 in the report for 1875."[a] (See further on p. 622.)

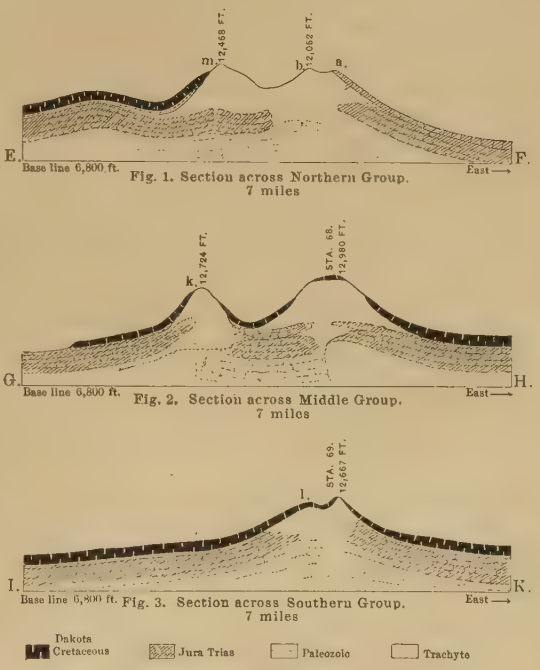


FIG. 106.—(After A. C. Peale.)

[a] The views regarding this method of mountain formation were subsequently summed up by Peale in an article, On a Peculiar Type of Eruptive Mountains in Colorado, which was published in No. 3 of the Bulletins of the Geological Survey, May 15, 1877.

In the season of 1876 C. A. White was at work in northwest Colorado, including the area lying between the Uinta and Park ranges. F. M. Endlich was engaged in the survey of the White River district, A. C. Peale of the Grand River district, and W. H. Holmes of the Sierra Abajo and West Miguel mountains.

In the interval between the issue of the reports for 1875 and 1876 Hayden, at the suggestion of King, had decided to call the transition group, heretofore referred to by him as Lignitic and the exact geological position of which was still in dispute, the *Laramie* group.

The report of this year contained little that is new or striking, the work resulting mainly in an extension of our knowledge of the geographic range of various geological formations. White, working in the Uinta region, aptly compared the structure of Junction Mountain to a displacement which might be illustrated by the action of a large punch worked by machinery, the perforated heavy iron plates being somewhat torn in places and nowhere clearly cut through in the process of punching. The work of White this year as a whole confirmed the view held by Hayden that these lignitic or Laramie beds, as they are now called, are of a transitional nature.

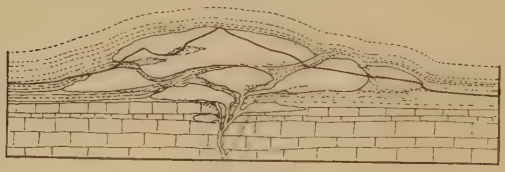


Fig. 1

Section showing probable method of intrusion of masses of trachyte.

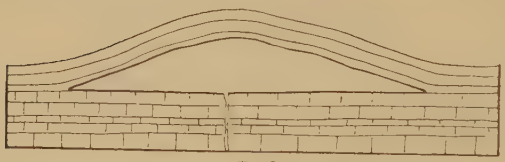


Fig. 2.

Arching of strata produced by intrusion of single mass uniformly distributed.

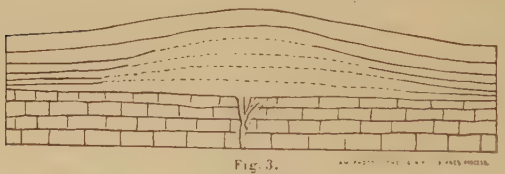


Fig. 3.

Degree of arching really produced by the irregular intrusions.

Intrusion of masses of Trachyte.
Sierra el Late.

FIG. 107.—Sections across the Sierra el Late. (After W. H. Holmes.)

The field work for Colorado was completed in 1876. The following year (1877) the work was extended northward into Idaho and Wyoming. The geological work was, as before, assigned to Drs. F. M. Endlich and A. C. Peale, with the addition of Orestes St. John. Endlich worked in the Sweetwater region, Peale in the Green River district, and St. John in the Teton district.

Work of Hayden in Idaho and Wyoming, 1877.

S. H. Scudder spent two months of the year in Colorado, Wyoming, and Utah in collecting fossil insects, which were subsequently described in the thirteenth monograph of this survey. Sir Joseph Hooker, director of the Kew Gardens, England, and Prof. Asa Gray,

of Cambridge, Massachusetts, accompanied the party for a time, making valuable botanical collections.

St. John noted the overturned character of a portion of the Caribou Range and made numerous sections across the Teton Range. Peale noted that in the region of the Blackfoot Basin the structure was that of a series of anticlinal and synclinal folds, the streams sometimes occupying the synclines and sometimes the monoclines. Also that there were at least three parallel anticlinal axes having the general direction northwest and southeast.

Hayden's twelfth and last annual report, bearing date of 1879 (1883), was issued in the form of two volumes of upward of twelve hundred pages, and included the work of the corps for the field season of 1878 and the office work until the closing up of the survey, which, by law, took effect June 30, 1879.

Work of Hayden in Wyoming, 1878.

The headquarters of the survey were at Cheyenne, Wyoming, as in previous years, and but four parties organized. The geological work was under the charge of W. H. Holmes, A. C. Peale, and Orestes St. John, and the paleontological work under Dr. C. A. White. Mr. Holmes made a general survey of the park, while Peale, assisted by J. E. Mushback, was occupied in making detail studies of the geyser and hot-spring localities.

FIG. 108.—William Henry Holmes.

The party, with St. John as geologist, surveyed the Wind River Mountains and a portion of the Wyoming and Gros Ventre ranges. The work of the topographic party in the Wind River and Grand Teton regions was hampered by their being robbed of all their animals and a portion of their outfit by hostile bands of Indians.

During the summer of 1877 Prof. S. H. Scudder, with a party, visited the Tertiary lake basin at Florissant and made an extensive collection of fossil insects, the published descriptions of which have made this region classic.

The two volumes mentioned are almost monographic as far as the hot springs and geysers are concerned, and are rendered unusually attractive for their time by the sketches and panoramas of Holmes. Peale gave a detailed description of all the springs and geysers of any importance found in the park, describing and tabulating over 2,000 of the former and 71 of the geysers. Holmes's report was accompanied by some brief petrographic descriptions by Capt. C. E. Dutton.

Dr. F. V. Hayden was born at Westfield, Massachusetts, September 7, 1829. His father dying when he was but ten years of age and his mother

marrying again, he went at the age of twelve to live with an uncle in Philadelphia, where he stayed until he was eighteen, beginning when he was sixteen to teach during the winter months in the district schools of the neighborhood. When eighteen, ambitious for an education and without money, he walked to Oberlin and laid his case before President Finney, of Oberlin College, who gave him such encouragement and sympathy that he set about preparing himself for college, working meanwhile at whatever he found to do to pay for his support and tuition.

Sketch of Hayden.

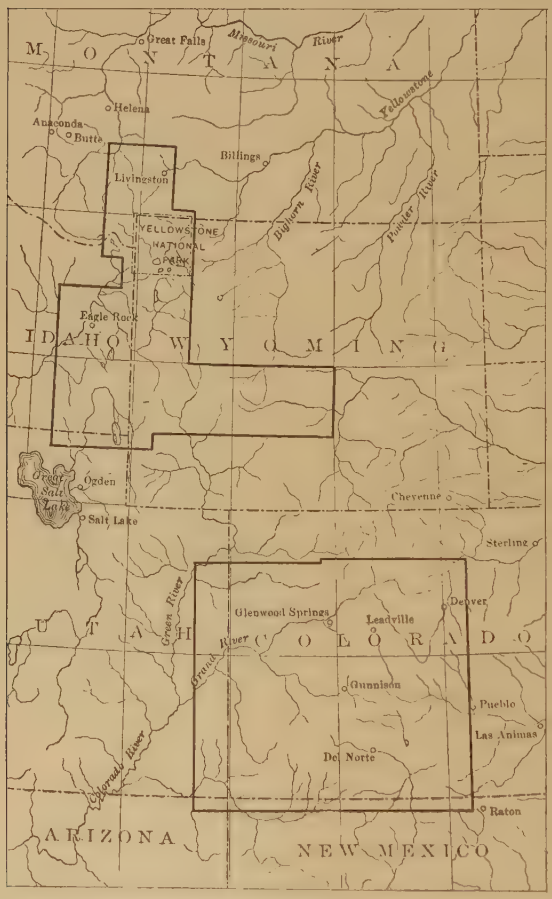


FIG. 109.—Showing areas surveyed and mapped by the Hayden Surveys, 1870–78.

He entered college and graduated in 1850, paying all his own expenses from the time he entered until graduation. These facts are mentioned, since they show the character of the man and enable one to understand better the causes of his success in after life. It is important to note, however, that, owing to his shyness and diffidence, his fellow students did not predict for him a prominent career, notwithstanding his acknowledged scholarly habits.

After graduating he studied medicine and received the degree of M. D. in 1853 at Albany, New York. While here he became acquainted with Prof. James Hall, and in the spring of 1853, together with F. B. Meek, went to the Bad Lands of the upper Missouri to make collections, as already noted. This trip marked the beginning not only of his scientific career but also that of his association with Meek, which lasted until the latter's death in 1876, and, incidentally, furnished an example of uninterrupted collaboration without a counterpart in the history of American geology.

FERDINAND VANDIVEER HAYDEN.

Director of U. S. Geological Survey of the Territories.

Hayden's scientific career, so promisingly begun, was, however, interrupted by the outbreak of the civil war, when he promptly volunteered, entering the Union army as an assistant surgeon and gradually rising to become post-surgeon and surgeon in chief to the Twenty-second Division of Cavalry. In June, 1865, he resigned from the army, but was subsequently breveted lieutenant-colonel for meritorious conduct. In the same year he was elected professor of geology and mineralogy in the University of Pennsylvania, holding this chair until 1872, when he was forced to resign, owing to his rapidly increasing duties in connection with the Geological Survey.

In 1879, after the consolidation of the various surveys, Doctor Hayden was appointed one of the geologists on the new organization. During the next four years his time was devoted mainly to the completion of the business and final publication of the reports of the Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories. His health began failing soon after his acceptance of this position, and in June, 1882, at his own request, he was relieved from the work of supervision of printing the reports and assigned to duty in the field, spending the summers of 1883–1886 in Montana. His disease (*locomotor ataxia*), however, grew steadily upon him, and in 1886 he resigned on account of complete incapacity for duty, thus closing a career of nearly thirty years of actual service as naturalist, surgeon, and geologist in connection with the Government.

The apparent diffidence which impressed Doctor Hayden's fellow-students at Oberlin, and led them to be doubtful as to his future course in life, characterized his maturer years, and to those not well acquainted with him made it difficult to account for his success. However, enthusiasm, perseverance, and energy were qualities equally characteristic of him all his life, and what seemed to be diffidence was largely the result of his nervous temperament. The secret of his success is to be found in his enthusiastic frankness and his energetic determination to carry through whatever he undertook. He was absorbed in the work of the Geological Survey and bent all his energies to its success. Excitable in temperament and frequently impulsive in action, he was generous to a fault, and, although ever ready to defend what he believed to be right, he was willing upon the presentation of evidence to modify his views.

He was always careful to give due credit to all who had worked in the fields he afterwards explored. In one of his reports, speaking of those who had preceded him, he says:

> Any man who regards the permanency or endurance of his own reputation will not ignore any of those frontiersmen who made their early explorations under circumstances of great danger and hardship.

The same spirit actuated him in his treatment of his subordinates and co-workers. His honesty and integrity were undoubted and his work for the Government and for science was a labor of love,

The following extract is from an article by Dr. Archibald Geikie, then director of the Geological Survey of Great Britain:

There can be no doubt that among the names of those who have pioneered in the marvelous geology of western North America that of F. V. Hayden will always hold a high and honored place. This place will be his due not only because of his own personal achievements in original exploration. His earlier work exhibits much of that instinctive capacity for grasping geological structure which is the main requisite for a field geologist. He had a keen "eye for country." But he likewise possessed the art of choosing the best men for his assistants and the tact of attracting them to himself and his corps. In this way he accomplished much excellent work, keeping himself latterly in the background so far as actual personal geological investigations were concerned, and contenting himself with the laborious task of organization and supervision while he encouraged and pushed forward his coadjutors.[a]

In an obituary notice of Doctor Hayden, read before the American Philosophical Society, Prof. J. P. Lesley, who had known him for many years, pays him the following tribute:

He represented in science the curiosity, the intelligence, the energy, the practical business talent of the western people. In a few years they came to adopt him as their favorite son of science. He exactly met the wants of the Great West. There was a vehemence and a sort of wildness in his nature as a man which won him success, cooperation, and enthusiastic reputation among all classes, high and low, wherever he went. In the wigwam, in the cabin, and in the court-house he was equally at home, and entirely one with the people. He popularized geology on the grandest scale in the new States and Territories. He easily and naturally affiliated with every kind of explorer, acting with such friendliness and manly justice toward those whom he employed as his coworkers that they pursued with hearty zeal the development of his plans.

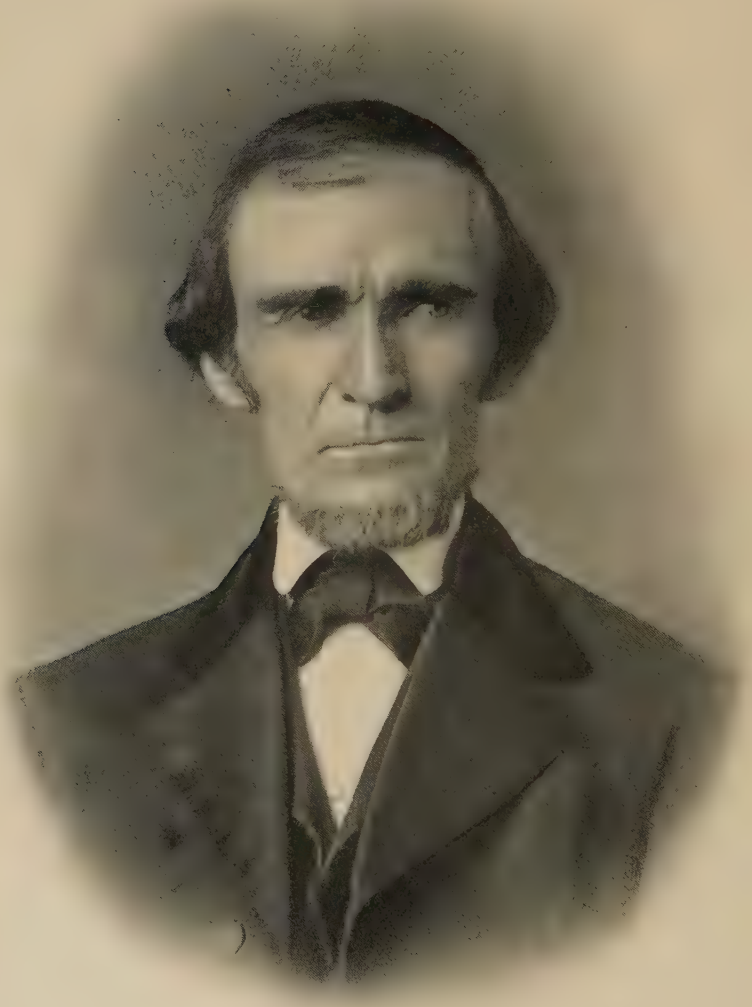
In dealing with the public men of the country he was so frank, forcible, and direct that it was impossible to suppress or resist him. He had the western people at his back so heartily and unanimously that he was for a long time master of the scientific situation at Washington. He was a warm personal friend of some of the highest officials of the Government, who never failed to support strenuously and successfully his surveys.

I think that no one who knows the history of geology in the United States can fail to recognize the fact that the present magnificent United States Geological Survey, now under the direction of Major Powell, is the legitimate child of Doctor Hayden's Territorial surveys.

According to Cope,[b] the Sioux Indians gave to Hayden the name "The-man-who-picks-up-rocks-running," a name which was certainly descriptive of the manner in which much of his work was necessarily done. The same writer states that at one time, when engaged in the exploration of the Laramie beds of the upper Missouri, he was pursued and finally overtaken by a band of hostile Indians. Finding him armed only with a hammer and carrying a bag of rocks and fossils, which they emptied out and examined with much surprise and curiosity, they concluded he was insane and let him alone.

[a] Nature, XXXVII, February, 1888, pp. 326–327.

[b] American Geologist, I, 1888, p. 110.



FIELDING BRADFORD MEEK.

Paleontologist.

F. B. Meek, Hayden's collaborator, was born of Irish parentage in the city of Madison, Indiana, in 1817, and during 1848–49 served as assistant to D. D. Owen on the surveys of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. Afterwards (from 1852–1858) he was assistant to James Hall at Albany, New York, and for a portion of the time connected with the geological survey of Missouri with Prof. G. C. Swallow. As noted elsewhere, he became early associated with Hayden, and, though refusing to become officially connected with the survey, was tacitly associated with him until the time of his death. Indeed, all the invertebrate fossils collected by Hayden in his western explorations were studied and the results prepared for publication by Meek, although appearing mainly under the joint name of Meek and Hayden.

Sketch of Meek.

On leaving Albany in 1858 Meek came to Washington, where he resided during the remainder of his life, having a room in the Smithsonian building. He was moderately tall and rather slender in build, with a dignified bearing, though quite diffident. During the latter part of his life he was also deaf, which caused him to avoid social gatherings almost altogether. He was never a man of robust health; indeed, during a large part of his life he was more or less an invalid. Genial, sincere, pure-minded, and honorable, such are the adjectives applied to him by his biographer. With the exception of James Hall, he is perhaps the most widely known of American paleontologists. Indeed, had Meek possessed the tremendous physique of Hall or the nervous energy of Hayden, he might have stood alone head and shoulders above most, if not all, his contemporaries. As it was, he did his best work only in the service of, or in collaboration with others, never as an organizer or leader. It is true that in his first expedition (under the patronage of Hall) to the Bad Lands he outranked Hayden, and that in numerous instances his work was of a higher order. Yet his mildness of character and lack of disposition to assert himself, until perhaps too late, caused him to almost invariably occupy a second place in any organization with which he was connected.

THE FORTIETH PARALLEL SURVEY UNDER CLARENCE KING.

In 1867 there was established by Congressional action, and almost wholly through the personal efforts of Clarence King, what has since been known as the Geological Survey of the Fortieth Parallel. This, though subject to the administrative control of Gen. A. A. Humphrey of U. S. Engineers, was under the immediate direction of King, to whom must be given almost the entire credit of its inception and successful execution.

King's Survey of the Fortieth Parallel, 1867–1877.

The immediate excuse for the survey was the desirability of ascertaining the character of the mineral resources of the country to be

traversed by the Pacific Railroad. The region explored, however, was a very extended one, reaching from the eastern Colorado range to the Sierra Nevadas, with an average width of about 100 miles along the fortieth parallel.

The plan of the work, as outlined by Emmons,[a] contemplated making a topographical map of the region on the general plan of those made at the present time, i. e., one on which the topography was indicated by contour lines rather than hachures on the hillsides, the then prevailing custom. The scale adopted was 4 miles to the inch, and the original area divided into three rectangular blocks or atlas sheets, each about 165 miles in length by 100 miles in width. Subsequently two more blocks were surveyed, making the total area surveyed and mapped some 82,500 square miles.

The party, according to the author above quoted, rendezvoused in California in the early part of the summer of 1867, and began their work at the east base of the Sierras in August, with J. D. Hague, Arnold Hague, and S. F. Emmons as geological assistants. Though few in number, the force was beyond question the best equipped of any that had thus far entered the field of American geology.

The winter of 1867–68 was spent at Virginia City, Nevada, in the study of the Comstock Lode, the mines of which, then but 1,000 feet in depth, had already produced some one hundred millions of dollars. The results of this work appeared in J. D. Hague's monograph, The Mining Industry, published in 1870.

During the season of 1868 the work of the survey was pushed eastward entirely across the Great Basin to the western shore of Great Salt Lake. In that of 1869 the desert ranges of Utah, the Wasatch, and the western end of the Uinta ranges were surveyed. This completed the work as originally planned, and with headquarters at New Haven, the task of working up the collections and platting the topographic and geologic notes was undertaken.

This work was, however, abruptly interrupted in the summer of 1870 by telegraphic orders from General Humphrey, directing the party to once more take the field, Congress, without solicitation, having appropriated money for the continuation of the survey. It being then too late in the season to prepare the necessary outfit for work in the high mountain regions east of the Wasatch, the season was devoted to a study of the extinct volcanoes, Mount Shasta, Mount Rainier, and Mount Hood. Among the results of this study was the discovery of the first-known active glaciers within the limits of the United States.

During the summers of 1871–72 the survey was carried eastward to the Great Plains and included an examination of the Eocene beds of

[a] Presidential Address, Geological Society of Washington, 1896.

the Green River Basin, the Uinta and Elk Mountains and the intervening Mesozoic and Tertiary valleys of the North Park and the Laramie Plains, the Medicine Bow Range, and the northern extension of the Front Range.

The survey made no annual or preliminary reports, and as the thorough study of the data collected consumed several years of time, some of the results obtained were anticipated by other organizations through priority of publication.

The published reports, which appeared in the form of quarto volumes, named in the order of their appearance, were: Vol. III, Mining Industry, by James D. Hague, 1870; Vol. V, Botany, by Sereno Watson, 1871; Vol. VI, Microscopical Petrography, by Ferdinand Zirkel, 1876; Vol. II, Descriptive Geology, by Arnold Hague and S. F. Emmons, 1877; Vol. IV, consisting of Parts 1 and 2, Paleontology, by F. B. Meek, James Hall, and R. P. Whitfield, and Part 3, Ornithology, by Robert Ridgeway, 1877; Vol. I, Sytematic Geology, by Clarence King, 1878; and Vol. VII, Odontornithes, by O. C. Marsh, in 1880. The first volume was accompanied by a geological atlas containing ten large double maps.

FIG. 110.—Robert Parr Whitfield.

To properly summarize the work of the survey, as made known in these volumes, is a practical impossibility in the space that can be devoted to it. It was noted that, in the grand total of 120,000 feet of sedimentary accumulations found, the main divisions of Archean, Paleozoic, Mesozoic, and Cenozoic were all distinctly outlined by divisional periods of marked unconformity. Considered as a whole, there was a noteworthy fullness in the geological column, none of the important stratigraphical time divisions being wholly wanting, excepting some of the obscure intermediate deposits which in other localities have been found lying between the base of the Cambrian and the summit of the Archean series.

From the data furnished by Emmons and Hague, and his own observations, King felt himself able to reconstruct with a considerable degree of accuracy the topographical configurations of the Archean surface, and pictured with great clearness the growth of that portion of the American continent included within the area surveyed. He conceived that, at the close of the Archean age, there was a great mountain system built up of at least two sets of nonconformable strata, referred to Laurentian and Huronian, which was coextensive

with the greater part of the Cordilleras.[a] This, west of 117° 20′, formed a land area and to the eastward a sea bottom, upon which last, throughout the entire Paleozoic period, were conformably deposited the gradually accumulating detritus from the land, brought down by eastward-flowing rivers. These Paleozoic sediments he found in the region of the Wasatch to be 32,000 feet in thickness, and in the extreme western limit, upward of 40,000 feet.

FIG. 111.—Map showing area covered by the Fortieth Parallel Survey.

He divided the series into four great groups: The first, which is purely detrital, being wholly of Cambrian age; the second, a limestone series of 11,000 feet in thickness, extending from the Cambrian to the top of the lower Coal Measures, and indicating a deep-sea deposit. Succeeding this came the Weber quartzite—a purely siliceous deposit of from six to ten thousand feet in thickness—followed by the fourth group of upper Coal Measure limestone, about two thousand feet in thickness. The entire Paleozoic series he summed up as composed of materials of two periods of mechanically

[a] King used the word *Cordilleras* to designate the entire series of mountain chains bordering the Pacific front of North America, limiting the term *Rocky Mountains* to the eastern front only.

accumulated detritus, interrupted by one and followed by another period of deep-sea limestone formation.

At the close of this great conformable period of Paleozoic deposition there were widespread mechanical disturbances. All the thickest part of the sediments, from the western shore line eastward to and including what is now the Wasatch, were raised above the ocean level to become a land area. East of the Wasatch the ocean bottom, with its Upper Carboniferous sediments, remained practically undisturbed.

Contemporaneous with or immediately succeeding this uplift, the old land mass to the westward went down. What was sea bottom had become land, and what was land became sea bottom. But the new land area extending from the Wasatch westward to the Havallah range (long. 117° 30′), under the combined action of heat, cold, and mechanical action of the atmosphere, began at once to yield the materials which, in the form of sand and silt, were carried west and east to be laid down, in the first-named instance on a gradually sinking Archean bottom, until a thickness of 20,000 feet was reached, and in the last named, conformably upon a bottom of Upper Carboniferous rocks, until some 3,800 feet had accumulated.

At the close of this period of sedimentation, which includes the Triassic and Jurassic, the Western ocean with its twenty-odd thousand feet of sediments underwent a sharp folding and uplifting, whereby the shore line was pushed outward as far as the western base of the present Sierra Nevadas. The force causing this uplifting acted tangentially and was most severe in the extreme western portion, i. e., the Sierras, where, in a belt of about 50 miles width, the Triassic and Jurassic sediments were crumpled and crowded together and crushed into a mass of almost undistinguishable folds. During all this powerful disturbance in the Western sea, the region east of the Wasatch remained practically undisturbed, as before.

King's views regarding the geographic distribution of land and water during the subsequent period of geological history were largely in harmony with those of Hayden. During the Cretaceous times he believed a Mediterranean ocean to have stretched from the eastern base of the Wasatch into Kansas. Over the bottom of that body of water an almost continuous conformable sheet of Cretaceous sediments was laid down, the greatest thickness of which was against the western shore of the ocean—that is, along the base of the Wasatch, where were found, conformably over the Jurassic shales, about 12,000 feet of Cretaceous beds.

With the close of the Cretaceous period of sedimentation the entire area from and including the Wasatch, eastward as far as the Mississippi Valley was uplifted, and in its western portion faulted or thrown into sharp or gently undulating folds. The immediate effect of this uplifting was, first, the development of the broad level region now

occupied by the Great Plains; secondly, the outlining of the basin of the Vermilion Creek (Wasatch) Eocene lake; thirdly, the formation of the distinct folds of which the Wasatch and Uintas are the most prominent examples; and fourthly, the relative upheaval of the old Archean ranges, with all their superincumbent load. The folds of the Wasatch involved a conformable series of strata extending from the base of the Cambrian to the top of the Cretaceous—in all, 44,000 feet in thickness. The astonishing and almost incredible feature of the case lies in the fact that, if King's ideas are to be accepted, this stupendous fold, together with the one of 30,000 feet forming the Uintas, was not a gradual uplift, but of sudden and necessarily catastrophic origin, and that, before the forces of erosion had accomplished their work, there actually here existed mountain ranges from 5 to 8 miles in height.[a] From the date of this elevation no marine waters have ever invaded the middle Cordilleras, the subsequent strata being, as noted by Hayden, of lacustrine origin.

FIG. 112.—Arnold Hague, Clarence King, Samuel Franklin Emmons.

Studying in detail the underlying geology, in connection with these folds, King announced the principle "that wherever an Archean mountain range underlay the subsequent sheets of sediment, there a true fold has taken place;" and further, that when one observes "the continuity of the strata across such a valley

[a] King's exact words are: So that, since the ocean level was banished to somewhere near its present position, the fold itself (i. e., the Wasatch) was not less than 44,000 feet in altitude. The Uinta was not so imposing a body, but its summit, before erosion began, was certainly 30,000 feet above the sea level. (Systematic Geology, p. 748.)

as that of the Laramie Plains, and then sees them sharply and suddenly rise against the foothills of the Archean, it becomes evident that the entire area of the Rocky Mountains has suffered actual lateral compression, and that the diminution of surface amounts to from 6 to 10 per cent." When he further considered that the post-Archean sedimentaries were to be regarded as a mere thin covering over the subjacent crust, he added that "this diminution of area of actual surface means an actual compression of the solid Archean shell of the earth."

Pursuing the same line of thought, King noted that the configuration of America to-day is due to the configuration or topography of the pre-Cambrian continent. Where Archean faults or mountain chains existed, there were the lines of weakness along which later orographic movements made themselves manifest. A comparatively thin coating of sedimentary beds, for illustration, overlies the generally smooth Archean rocks of the Mississippi Valley, and here no subsequent disturbances have taken place. On the other hand, the high Archean Wasatch ridges, which were covered by 10,000 feet of sediment in post-Archean times, were again and again uplifted during the subsequent periods of disturbance.

It was noted above that, at the close of the post-Cretaceous uplifting, the Wasatch highland stood at an elevation of upwards of 40,000 feet. Under such extraordinary conditions rapid and intense erosion was inevitable, and in a comparatively brief period, geologically, the Vermilion Creek Eocene lake was filled with sediments derived therefrom to a depth of 5,000 feet.

Then ensued another period of disturbance, by which the western portion of these Vermilion Creek beds was upturned, while the region to the immediate west, from which their sediments had been derived, was as suddenly depressed, allowing the waters of the lake to extend themselves 200 miles westward into Nevada.

Another series of crustal movements was now inaugurated in the east, whereby the Great Plains land area also underwent a subsidence, which was most pronounced along the foothills of the Rocky Mountains and gradually died out to the eastward. This movement marks the dividing line between the Eocene and the Miocene periods. Contemporaneously with this the entire Great Basin area, including portions of Washington, Oregon, Nevada, and California, lying to the east of the Sierras and the present Cascade Range, became depressed, and, receiving the drainage of the surrounding hills and mountains, was converted into two large lakes which, throughout the Miocene period, were depositories of sediment from the adjacent land. Powerful and profound crustal movements at the close of the Miocene threw the beds into folds, but did not apparently raise them above the surface level of the lake. Contemporaneously with this movement the

Miocene lake of the east, through the subsidence of the surrounding country, was so increased as to cover almost the entire province of the Great Plains.

The beginning of the Pliocene period found, then, two enormous fresh-water lakes, the one covering the basin country of Utah, Nevada, Idaho, and eastern Oregon, the other occupying the Plains province. The period was brought to an end by crustal movement which, however, affected the two areas quite differently, the sediments of the Great Basin area being broken through the middle and the halves depressed from 1,000 to 2,000 feet, while those of the Plains were bodily tilted toward the south and east.

The result of the post-Pliocene movement in the department of the Plains was to give thereafter a free drainage to the sea. The result in the area of the Great Basin, on the other hand, was to leave two deep depressions, one at the western base of the Wasatch and one at the base of the Sierra Nevada, which in Quaternary times received the abundant waters of the Glacial period and formed the two now nearly extinct lakes known as Lake Lahontan and Lake Bonneville, noted elsewhere.

Sketch of King

King was born at Newport, Rhode Island, in 1842, and graduated from the Sheffield Scientific School in 1862, being a member of the first class to receive degrees from that institution. The year following his graduation he, in company with James T. Gardner, joined an emigrant train starting from St. Joseph, Missouri, on an overland trip to California. It is stated that it was during this trip, at that time a slow and eventful one, that he conceived the idea, afterwards carried into execution, of a geological section across the entire Cordilleran system. Reaching California, he attached himself as a volunteer assistant to the State survey of California, under J. D. Whitney. Later he was connected with parties under General McDowell in the examination of the mineral resources of the Mariposa grant. It was during this expedition that he and his companion were captured by Apaches, but were fortunately rescued just as the fires were being prepared for their torture.

After the civil war and the passage of the bill subsidizing the Pacific Railroad, King recognized that the time had come for carrying out his scheme for connecting the geology of the East with that of the West and making the cross section above referred to. With this project in view he went to Washington in the winter of 1866–67, and in spite of the disadvantage of his youth—being then scarcely 25 years of age, and still more youthful appearance—he was so successful in impressing Congress with the importance of ascertaining the character of the mineral resources of the country about to be opened that not only was a generous annual appropriation voted, but King was him-

CLARENCE KING.

Director of U. S. Geological Explorations of Fortieth Parallel.

self placed in charge, subject only to the administrative control of Gen. A. A. Humphrey, as already mentioned.

The published results of this survey we have already reviewed. As described by Emmons, from whose sketch most of what is here given of the personal history of King is quoted, "probably no more masterly summary of the great truths of geology had been made since the publication of Lyell's Principles." Making due allowance for the enthusiasm of one who was an associate and warm personal friend, attention need only be called to the fact that the entire work was consummated before its author saw his fortieth birthday, to establish once and for all King's fame as an organizer and geologist.

Aside from the publications under this survey, King's bibliography contains few titles, but this may mean simply that neither ink nor words were wasted. In 1877 he delivered an address at the thirty-first anniversary of the Sheffield Scientific School on Catastrophism and the Evolution of Environment, which Emmons characterized as a "protest against the extreme uniformitarianism of that day." It was naturally based largely on his Fortieth Parallel work. This uniformitarianism he described as "the harmless undestructive rate (of geological changes) of to-day prolonged backward into the deep past." He contended that while the old belief in catastrophic changes had properly disappeared, yet geological history, as he read it, showed that the rate of change had not been uniform, as was claimed by the later school. He believed rather, as a result of his own observations, that at certain periods in geological history the rate of change had been accelerated to such a degree that the effect produced upon life was somewhat catastrophic in its nature.

One act in King's professional career should be here referred to, although the story has often been told. It will be remembered that in 1872 there was made a reported discovery of a diamond field in southern Arizona within an area that had been gone over in the course of the work of the Fortieth Parallel Survey. King, for purely scientific purposes, undertook a study of the region, with the purpose of discovering something regarding the matrix and the origin of the diamond. He discovered, rather, that the whole matter was a stupendous fraud; that, so far from there being a diamond mine, the ground had been "salted." So soon as this discovery was made King started for San Francisco, traveling night and day, that he might outstrip all other possible sources of information. On his arrival he at once visited the offices of the directors of the company organized for the selling of stock, and demanded peremptorily that all issues should be stopped. To a suggestion that his announcement of the fraudulent nature of the claim be delayed temporarily, he replied: "There is not money enough in the Bank of California to induce me to delay this announcement a single hour." And it was not delayed.

By those who knew him, King is described as a man of rare charm of manner, cheerful and courteous disposition, with interests broad as civilization and sympathies catholic as humanity. A man of remarkably robust physique, he yet broke down almost in the prime of life, and died of consumption in 1901.

U. S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEYS WEST OF THE 100TH MERIDIAN UNDER LIEUT. G. M. WHEELER.

In 1869 Lieut. G. M. Wheeler, of the United States Engineers, was authorized to undertake a military reconnoissance for topographical purposes in southwest Nevada and western Utah. No geologist accompanied the party until 1871, the work being purely topographical. In the last-named year G. K. Gilbert was appointed chief geologist, serving through three field seasons, with A. R. Marvine, assistant in 1871, and E. E. Howell, in 1872–73. J. J. Stevenson served as geologist with one of the parties in 1873, Jules Marcou in 1875, A. R. Conkling in 1875–1877, and J. A. Church in 1877. In 1878–79 Stevenson was again attached to the survey, with I. C. Russell as assistant. Oscar Loew served as mineralogical assistant during 1871–1875, and E. D. Cope as vertebrate paleontologist in 1874.

Wheeler's Surveys West of the 100th Meridian, 1869–1879.

FIG. 113.—Grove Karl Gilbert.

The invertebrate paleontological collections made by all of the parties were worked up by Dr. C. A. White, then connected with Bowdoin College, after a preliminary examination by F. B. Meek. The results of the geological work appeared in the form of two quarto volumes, the first, of 681 pages, in 1875; and the second, of 420 pages, in 1881—the latter with an appendix by Doctor White, comprising 36 pages of text and 2 plates of fossils. The paleontological report proper, comprising the work of both Cope and White, appeared under date of 1877, a quarto volume of 599 pages and 83 plates of fossils.

The first vertebrate fossils from the western Triassic were described in this report, the materials having been obtained by Professor Newberry when attached to the Macomb expedition in 1855.

Gilbert applied the names Basin Range system and Basin Ranges to all that system of short mountain ridges separated by trough-like valleys which lie west of the plateau system, though not quite coincident with the Great Basin itself. This basis system of mountain uplift he regarded as due mainly to faulting and tilting, in this respect differing with the geologists of the Fortieth Parallel Survey, who

regarded the primary features as due to folding, the now evident faulting being a phase of late Tertiary or post-Tertiary time.[a] He noted that the ranges were parallel, recurring at regular intervals and of only moderate dimensions; further, that the ridges of the system occupied loci of upheaval, and were not residua of denudation; and that the valleys were not valleys of erosion, but mere intervals between the lines of maximum uplift.

He dwelt in considerable detail upon the phenomena of erosion by wind-blown sand and silt-laden streams, and discussed the glacial phenomena and the conditions attending the drying up of the great inland lakes, applying the name Lake Bonneville, in honor of Captain Bonneville, the explorer, to the great body of fresh water that once occupied Sevier and Salt Lake valleys and of which the present bodies of salt water bearing these latter names are but the tiny residuals. Those great bodies of water, which obviously could have existed only under conditions of climate quite different from those of to-day, he

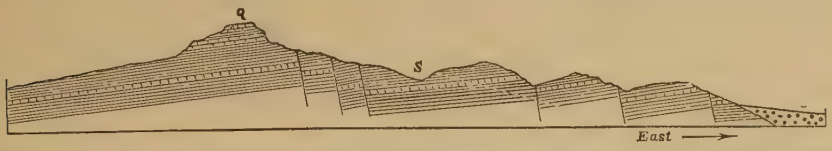


FIG. 114.—Section of the Pahranagat range at Silver Canyon. (After G. K. Gilbert.) Scale, 1-72000. Base line=level of Great Salt Lake. *Q*, Quartz Peak; *S*, Sanders Cañon.

believed to be coeval with the Glacial period of the northeastern States. He found, however, no counterpart in this region of the general glaciation of the eastern States, though there were local glaciers high upon the flanks of the mountains.

The abundant volcanic phenomena presented by the region were discussed in considerable detail and the recency of many of the lava flows noted, the conclusions arrived at being to the effect that while "we are not merely permitted to think of a renewal of that activity as possible * * * we are logically compelled to regard it as probable."

The geological history of the basin region as read by Gilbert was to the effect that the area was depressed below sea level from the close of

[a] In Chapter VII of the volume on Mining Industry (Vol. III, Report, 40th Parallel Survey, 1873) King refers incidentally to these mountains as the tops of folds whose deep synclinal valleys are filled with Tertiary and Quaternary detritus. Just how fully the problem may have been worked out in his own mind at that time is not apparent, but in 1878, after the appearance of Gilbert's monograph, he expressed the opinion noted above. The entire subject, it may be stated, was gone over by J. E. Spurr in a paper read before the Geological Society of America in 1900 (see Bull. Geol. Soc. Amer., XII, pp. 217–270), and the matter rediscussed at the winter meeting of the same society in Washington in 1902. The prevailing opinions there expressed were in accordance with the views put forward by Gilbert in 1875.

the Archean period until late Carboniferous. From the close of the Carboniferous to the beginning of the Cretaceous a great area, including the entire plateau country, was covered by the waters of an inland sea entirely cut off from the main ocean. Only once did the sea regain a temporary sway, bringing with it a Jurassic fauna and then retreating. Throughout the Cretaceous age the plateau country was the scene of a shallow ocean, the shores of which were ever advancing and receding. Through the upraising of some remote barrier the ocean was permanently shut out and the inland sea gradually converted into an immense fresh-water lake, and finally drained till the whole region became terrestrial. Since the expulsion of this sea the elevation of the continent which caused it has continued, and the plateau country, which from early Silurian to late Cretaceous times was slowly sinking to an extent of not less than 8,000 feet, has been bodily uplifted to its former altitude.

FIG. 115.—Edwin Eugene Howell.

Gilbert called attention to the almost entire absence of Upper Silurian and Devonian fossils in the region, and described the volcanic necks or plugs as vestiges of the flues through which the eruptions reached the surface, the last contents congealing in the flue to be subsequently exposed by erosion.

A. R. Marvine, who was attached to the party in 1871 as an astronomical assistant, was later detailed for geological work, his report on the region between Fort Whipple, New Mexico, and Tucson, Arizona, occupying pages 191–225 of the third volume.

FIG. 116.—John James Stevenson.

E. E. Howell, as a member of the survey during 1872–73, worked throughout the first season in western Utah and eastern Nevada and the plateau region of central Nevada. In 1873 he once more entered the plateau country and continued upon it to Arizona and New Mexico. His report is included in pages 227–300 of the same volume.

The party to which J. J. Stevenson was attached as a geologist was assigned in 1873 to work in southern Colorado, the region including portions of the drainage areas of the South Platte, Arkansas, Rio Grande, San Juan, Grand, and Gunnison rivers.

Stevenson devoted considerable attention to a discussion of the geological age of the Colorado lignites, which he regarded (Lesquereux to the contrary, notwithstanding), as Cretaceous. He agreed with J. L. Le Conte in regarding the Rocky Mountains as not the product of one upheaval, nor the several axes wholly synchronous in origin. The first great epoch of accelerated disturbance in the Rocky Mountain region, resulting in the permanent elevation of the surface, he thought to have been synchronous with that during which the Appalachian chain was completed. Further, that the second epoch of elevation began toward the close of the Triassic. This was followed by a period of subsidence during which the Cretaceous beds were laid down, a third period of uplift marking the close of the Cretaceous. During this latter period volcanic agencies were in a state of intense activity, and a vast sheet of lava, two to three thousand feet in thickness, flowed out over the whole region of the Grand and Gunnison rivers. During the Tertiary period still another elevation took place, sufficient to give the rocks of that age a dip of some 5 degrees.

In his report of the work for 1879 Stevenson discussed in considerable detail the relations of the Laramie group, which he regarded as but the upper part of Hayden's Fox Hill group—that is, of very late Cretaceous age. He felt that there was no doubt but that the coal fields of the Galisteo area and of southern Colorado were of precisely the same age as those of northern Colorado and Wyoming.

THE UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEYS UNDER J. W. POWELL.

J. W. Powell's first observations on the geology of the Uinta Mountains were made in 1869, when engaged in his famous exploration of the Grand Canyon, already noted. In 1871, 1874, and 1875 he again visited the plateau region, the last year being accompanied by Dr. C. A. White. The results of these later years of exploration are given in the quarto monograph on the Geology of the Eastern Portion of the Uinta Mountains, published in 1876. This comprised, all told, 218 pages, with a large folio atlas.

Powell's Geology of the Uinta Mountains, 1874-75.

The expedition of 1875 and those of the intervening years until 1880 were made under the authority of the Department of the Interior, the organization, with Powell as director, being known as the second division of the U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories. In 1877 the name was changed to the U. S. Geographical and Geological Survey of the Rocky Mountain Region.

In none of the early Powell surveys was an attempt made at systematic areal work. Certain striking and well-exemplified features were selected and made the subject of special monographs. In the work of 1876, above noted, Powell divided the region west of the Great

Plains, east of the Sierra Nevada, and south of the North Platte, Shoshone, and Sweetwater rivers into what he designated as geological provinces—the Park Province, the Plateau Province, and the Basin Province.

The first named he described as characterized by broad, massive ranges, sometimes distinct and sometimes coalescing, so as to include the great parks. The mountains comprise high, lofty, snow-clad peaks which form perennial reservoirs for the multitude of streams discharging in part into the Colorado River and thence into the Gulf of California, and in part into the Rio Grande and thence into the Gulf of Mexico.

FIG. 117.—Showing area surveyed and mapped by the Powell survey in 1875–80.

The Plateau Province he described as characterized by many tables bounded by canyon and cliff escarpments, and on which stand lone mountains and irregular groups of mountains and short ranges. This region drains almost wholly into the Colorado River.

The Basin Province was characterized by short north-and-south mountain ranges and ridges separated by desert valleys, and with a drainage which is almost wholly into the interior salt lakes and sinks.

Devoting himself mainly to the Uintas, he showed that they owed their present configuration to the degradation of a great upheaved block having its axis in an east-and-west direction. This upheaval, which he thought took place very slowly and gradually, began at the close of Mesozoic time and continued with slight intermissions until late Cenozoic. The total amount of upheaval in the axial region was more than 30,000 feet. Contemporaneously with upheaval the forces of degradation were at work, though not at the same rate of progress, along the axial line of uplift, the degradation amounting to more than 25,000 feet (4¾ miles), and the mean degradation to 3½ miles; so that over the entire area of about 2,000 square miles some 7,100 cubic miles of rock material have been removed.

During the years 1874, 1875, and 1876 Capt. Clarence E. Dutton, of the Ordnance Department, U. S. Army, made, under direction of the Powell survey, further studies in the plateau region which had already received attention from Powell, Newberry, and others, as previously noted. Dutton's monograph—a Report on the Geology of the High Plateaus of Utah, a quarto volume of 307 pages, with an atlas—appeared under date of 1880. The particular territory studied by Dutton lay in Utah, occupying a belt of country extending from a point about 15 miles east of Mount Nebo, in the Wasatch, south-southwest for about 175 miles, and having a breadth of from 25 to 80 miles—a total area of some 9,000 square miles.

Dutton's Work on the High Plateaus, 1874–1876.

As was the case with Powell, as indeed must here be the case with every observing man, Dutton was impressed with the evident signs of the vast amount of erosion which the country had undergone within comparatively recent geological times. Noting that from an area of 10,000 square miles from 6,000 to 10,000 vertical feet of strata have been removed, he fell to speculating on the probable effect upon the earth's equilibrium of such a transference of materials. If the slow accumulation of great masses of sediment on sea bottoms brings about a gradual subsidence, why should not, he argued, the removal of a like load from any land area result in a corresponding uplift or elevation. Thus, for the second time in the history of American geology, was broached the now well-known subject of isostacy. (See p. 499.) This great erosion, it is well to note, he regarded as having taken place mainly in Miocene time, though continuing on into Pliocene.

FIG. 118.—Clarence Edward Dutton.

He noted that the great structural features of the high plateaus were due to faults and monoclinal flexures; also that the one form of displacement passed continually into the other—that what is here a simple fault passed by subdivision, but a few miles farther along in its course, into what he designated as step faults, and still farther on into unbroken anticlinals. All of these grander displacements belonging to the same system he regarded as having their commencement in the latter part of Pliocene times.

The great amount of volcanic activity evident received attention, the most ancient dating back to Eocene times. The character of the volcanic products was studied and the various lavas classified as (1) propylite, (2) andesite, (3) trachyte, (4) rhyolite, and (5) basalt, named here in order of their extrusion. The facts, as a whole, in this

region he believed to be confirmatory of Richthofen's law of the sequence of volcanic rocks.[a] He noted his objections to the German method of rock classification based upon geological age.

In 1876 G. K. Gilbert, then a member of Major Powell's corps, made a study of the Henry Mountains of Utah. His report appeared in 1877 in the form of a quarto volume of 160 pages, with five folding plates, and numerous plates and figures in the text. In this he showed that these mountains were due to the intrusion from below of igneous matter through Carboniferous and Triassic strata, causing the overlying Cretaceous and Tertiary beds to arch or bulge upward, the present aspect of the mountains having resulted from erosion, whereby the overlying bulged beds and a portion of the igneous rocks as well were cut away. Phenomena of this type had been previously noted by Holmes, Peale, and Marvine, of the Hayden Survey (pp. 601, 602), but it remained for Gilbert to fully elaborate the idea, and that in a manner that must ever connect it with his name. To intrusions of this type he gave the name of laccolites.

Gilbert's Work in the Henry Mountains, 1875-1877.

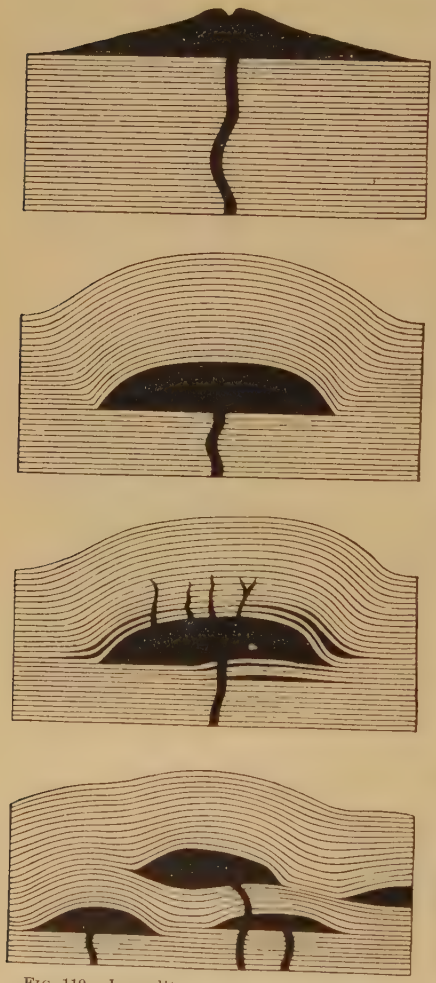


FIG. 119.—Laccolites. (After G. K. Gilbert.)

In this report Gilbert showed that, in the uplifting of the sandstone to form these domes, the beds, as in the case of that of the Vermilion Cliff sandstone, might be elongated as much as 300 feet in a distance of three miles. That this could be done, and that suddenly, he believed to be due to the pressure of the overlying beds. The material was in a quasi plastic condition, and no fissures could be opened unless coincidently filled by some material which would

[a] Richthofen divided the Tertiary and post-Tertiary volcanic rocks into the five classes given above, and regarded them as having been the product of a regular sequence of eruptions, propylite being the most ancient and basalt the most recent.

JOHN WESLEY POWELL.

Director of U. S. Geographical and Geological Survey of the Rocky Mountain Regions.

resist the tendency of the walls to flow together. This consideration led him to the conclusion that—

> just as for each rock there is a crushing weight, so there is for each rock a certain depth at which it can not be fissured.

Applying this principle to faults and fissure veins he concluded that—

> if the fault extend to a great depth it will finally reach a region where the hardest rocks which it separates are coerced by so great a pressure that they can not hold themselves asunder, but are forced together before the fissure can be filled by mineral deposits. Thus, there is a definable inferior limit to the region of vein formation.

This the present writer believes to be the first time the doctrine of rock flowage was put forth in America and by an American.

The matters of instability of drainage lines, planation, and formation of river terraces were discussed, and it was shown that Hitchcock's idea of the formation of river terraces by successive periods of sedimentation (p. 462) was erroneous, such in fact being but the recorded stages of progressive erosion. In this work Gilbert used the terms *consequent*, *antecedent*, and *superimposed* as introduced by Powell, and showed that the drainage of the Henry Mountains, while as a whole consequent, was not so in all of its details.

The igneous rocks of the mountains were studied microscopically by Capt. C. E. Dutton, who classed them as trachytes.

Sketch of Powell.

Powell was born of English parentage in Mount Morris, New York, March 24, 1834, and died September 23, 1902. From childhood he manifested a deep interest in all natural phenomena and early gave evidence of that bold and self-reliant spirit which in later years found vent in his hazardous exploration of the Grand Canyon of the Colorado. Vigorous, impetuous, and sometimes intolerant of the opinions of others, he made warm friends and strong enemies. Rising from obscurity, without university training, indeed almost wholly self-taught, to become a bold and aggressive thinker, and finally the head of the U. S. Geological Survey in 1881, it is little to be wondered at that he became for many a target for sneers as well as an object of envy. But however much men may differ as to the value of his individual work in the geological as well as ethnological field, no one will for a moment question that it was through his efforts that others were given the opportunity to carve out their own immortality. Upon his success as an administrator his fame may safely rest.

After his retirement from the Survey in 1894 Powell limited himself mainly to abstruse psychological problems and the directorship of the Bureau of American Ethnology, which, it should be said, he had been largely instrumental in founding in 1880.

Powell served with gallantry during the civil war, rising to the rank of major of artillery. He lost his right arm at the battle of Pittsburg Landing.

As early as 1874 the question of the advisability of consolidating the various geological and geographical surveys west of the Mississippi was considered by a committee of the public lands, to which Congress had referred a message of the President of the United States relating to the matter. The committee made exhaustive investigations, receiving testimony from many interested parties, and undoubtedly a strong effort was made to have the surveys conducted under the direction of the United States Army. In opposition to this was successfully arrayed almost the unanimous opinion of the scientific and professional men of the country. In 1878 the matter was again brought up, with the result of consolidating all of the various surveys under the U. S. Geological Survey, of which Clarence King was appointed director in 1879. Mr. King, however, held the office but a single year, resigning in favor of Maj. J. W. Powell.

Consolidation of all the Geological Surveys, 1879.

FIG. 120.—Packing flour.

THE MOODY FOOTMARK QUARRY, SOUTH HADLEY, MASSACHUSETTS.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE FOSSIL FOOTPRINTS OF THE CONNECTICUT VALLEY.

In the American Journal of Science for 1836 Prof. Edward Hitchcock described a series of fossil footprints occurring in the sandstone of the Connecticut Valley, attention to which had been called by Dr. James Deane, of Greenfield, the latter's notice having been first directed to them by a Mr. Dexter Marsh, of Deerfield, who found them among some flagstones being laid in front of his house. Deane, who was a practicing physician, was quick to realize their geological interest and apparently also recognized his own inability to do the matter justice, and so referred them to Doctor Hitchcock.

Those first found were from a quarry in Montague; later finds were made at the so-called Lily Pond quarry at Turners Falls, a quarry which has yielded in the past and still occasionally yields the finest examples yet produced. Hitchcock described and figured tracks which he regarded as having been made by as many as seven different species of animals. His conclusions regarding their origin were, first, that they were all the impressions of biped animals; second, that they could not have been made by any known biped except birds, and third that they well corresponded with the tracks of birds in having the same ternary division of the feet, with frequently, and perhaps always, the toes terminated with claws, as do birds. To these supposed bird tracks he gave the name *Ornithichnites* (from *ορνίς* and *τίχνοσ*), signifying stony bird tracks. Five years of further examination enabled him to swell the list of species to 27, which were described and figured, natural size, in his final report on the geology of Massachusetts, 1841.

Up to this last date he had found no certain evidence that any of the tracks were made by quadrupeds, yet a considerable proportion of them bore so strong a resemblance to saurian reptiles that he denominated them *saurodichnites*, or tracks resembling those of saurians, intending, however, by the term merely to convey an intimation that they might prove reptilian. To the others he now applied the name *ornithoidichnites*, or tracks resembling those of birds. To animal tracks of all kinds, and of whatever nature he proposed the general name *ichnolites*.

At the April meeting, 1842, of the American Association of Geologists, Hitchcock brought the matter up once more, describing five new species, one of which, *O. tuberosa*, from Pompton, New Jersey, was the first thus far found outside of the Connecticut Valley.

In this same paper he also announced the finding of tracks which afforded the first "certain evidence that any of the numerous tracks

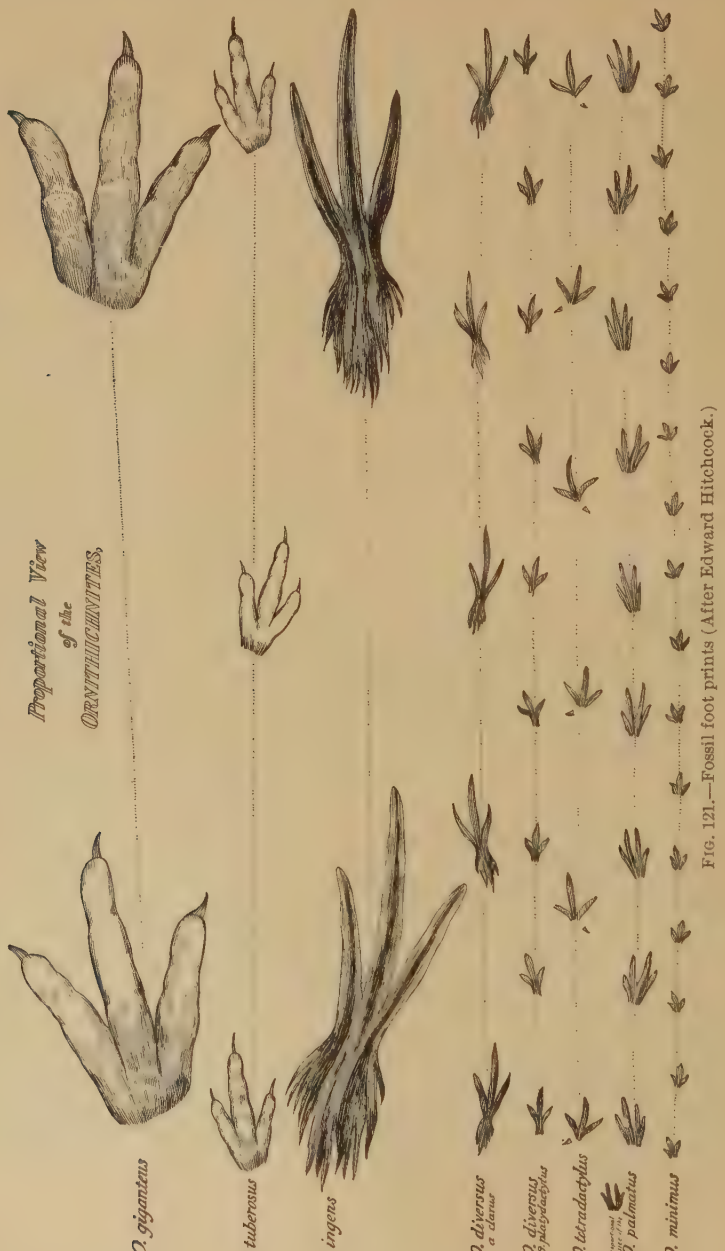


FIG. 121.—Fossil foot prints (After Edward Hitchcock.)

upon the sandstone of the Connecticut Valley were made by a quadruped," though he had suspected that such might be the case. These probable quadrupedal tracks he described under the name *Sauroidich-*

nites dewreyi, and it was suggested that they were comparable with the *Cheiotherium*, an amphibian found in the European Keuper beds (Triassic). This discovery, naturally, raised again the question as to the possible quadrupedal nature of the others described, but, with characteristic conservatism, he still refrained from committing himself, simply noting that it would be "contrary to the cautious spirit of science" to decide on the evidence then at hand as to their exact nature, and he therefore adhered to the course adopted in his previous report, and classified all under the names as *ornithoidichnites* and *sauroidichnites*, as before.

It is scarcely necessary to remark that the discovery of these tracks excited a very lively interest both at home and abroad, and references and suggestions regarding them multiplied in the geological literature of the day. Thus, in the American Journal of Science, XLV, 1843, under the title of Ornithichnites of the Connecticut River Sandstones and the Dinornis of New Zealand, we find given the opinions of Deane, Hitchcock, Mantell, and Richard Owen regarding their nature. Deane, in a letter to Doctor Mantell, of London, had written:

> These beautiful fossils, indicating a high grade of animal existence in a period of the earth so immensely remote, may well be regarded among the wonders of paleontological science. * * * That the footsteps of the Connecticut River are, however, the authentic traces of extinct birds is confirmed by the undeviating comparisons they bear to living nature.

He wrote further of referring these footprints, as discovered by himself, to Professors Silliman and Hitchcock, both of whom admitted the plausibility of his statements, yet remained incredulous as to the inferences drawn until accurate models were submitted to them, when Professor Hitchcock had pronounced his unqualified conviction that the footprints were those of birds. Doctor Mantell in his reply to Doctor Deane seems to have himself accepted the opinion of their bird-like nature, and stated further that at first both Professors Owen and Murchison were in doubt as to whether they were made by birds or reptiles. Mr. Lyell, however, stated his conviction that they were genuine *ornithichnites*. Later, Professor Murchison, after considering the enormous size of the tracks which must have been made by the New Zealand moas, "confessed that the gigantic bones from New Zealand, evincing as they did most unequivocally the existence even in our own times of birds as large as any required by the American footmarks, had removed his skepticism, and that he had no hesitation in declaring his belief that the *ornithichnites* had been produced by the imprints of the feet of birds which had walked over the rocks when in a soft and impressible state." "An opinion," adds Mantell, "in which I entirely concur."

Dr. Richard Owen, too, in a letter to Professor Silliman, under date of March 16, 1843, after calling attention to the need of caution in

assuming the existence of highly organized birds at so early a period, particularly when there were known to be large reptiles which might make tracks very similar, went on to speak of the then recently described Dinornis [a] of New Zealand, and wrote as follows:

It seems most reasonable, therefore, to conclude that the *ornithichnites* are the impressions of feet of birds which had the same low grade of organization as the Apteryx and Dinornis of New Zealand, and this latter may be regarded as the last remnants of an apterous race of birds which seems to have flourished in the epoch of the New Red sandstone of Connecticut and Massachusetts.

The concluding paragraph in the article from which these abstracts have been made is interesting as showing the unqualified acceptation by Murchison of the opinions by the various authorities. Thus, he is quoted as having said:

From this moment, then, I am prepared to admit the value of the reasoning of Doctor Hitchcock and of the original discoverer, Dr. James Deane, who, it appears by the clear and modest paper laid before us (by Doctor Mantell), was the first person to call the attention of the professor to the phenomenon, expressing then his own belief, from what he saw in existing nature, that the footprints were made by birds. Let us now hope, therefore, that the last vestiges of doubt may be removed by the discovery of the bones of some fossil Dinornis. In the meantime let us honor the great moral courage of Professor Hitchcock in throwing down his opinions before an incredulous public.

FIG. 122.—James Deane.

About this time Doctor Deane, evidently becoming dissatisfied with the position he was likely to occupy in the discussion, began to himself publish descriptions, his first paper appearing in the American Journal of Science, XLVI, 1844, where he figured a slab some 6 by 8 feet in dimensions containing over 75 impressions. He did not, however, attempt any scientific description of the same, and referred to them as *Ornithichnites fulicoides*, of Hitchcock.

In a paper read before the American Association of Geologists and Naturalists at Washington in May, 1844, Doctor Hitchcock took the subject up once more and gave a brief history of the discovery of footprints in other countries, and also certain data regarding an earlier discovery than that of Doctor Deane, referring to the fact that in 1802 Mr. Pliny Moody, of South Hadley, in Massachusetts, had turned up with the plow upon his father's farm in that place a stone containing in relief five tracks of what he, Hitchcock, now referred to as *Ornith-*

[a] Bones of the Dinornis, the giant bird of New Zealand, it should be mentioned, first came to the notice of the scientific world through the publications of Richard Owen, the English anatomist, in 1839–1843.

ichnites fulicoides. This same slab served for several years the purpose of a doorstep, and finally passed into the possession of Doctor Hitchcock in 1839.

An evident feeling of jealousy between the two gentlemen most concerned is for the first time manifested in this paper, a feeling which apparently existed until the time of Doctor Deane's death, and which caused his friends to publish in 1861 the volume entitled Ichnographs of the Sandstone of Connecticut River, a quarto volume of 61 pages of text and 46 full-page plates.

Hitchcock covered the entire subject up to the date of his reading this paper (1844), and described the fine large specimen found in the impure limestone of Chicopee Falls, in Springfield, under the name of *Ornithoidichnites redfieldii*, and also several other new species. The resemblance of these to saurian remains was still recognized, but the proof was not regarded as sufficient to refer them unequivocally to quadrupeds.

In this paper Hitchcock adopted the following classification for tracks or markings of various kinds:

Order 1. *Polypodichnites*, or many-footed tracks.
Order 2. *Tetrapodichnites*, or four-footed tracks.
Order 3. *Dipodichnites*, or two-footed tracks.
Order 4. *Apodichnites*, or footless tracks.

Under the latter term he included certain marks made by fishes, mollusks, and annelid worms.

In the American Journal of Science for 1845, Doctor Deane had two papers descriptive of footprints found by him and a part of which he thought to be undoubtedly those of batrachians, agreeing in this respect with Hitchcock, as noted above. In his second paper he described and figured tracks made by a batrachian reptile, the method of progression of which, as indicated by the tracks, was by kangaroo-like jumps, the fore limbs not touching the ground. Again, in 1847, Deane had a paper dealing not merely with the tracks, but also with the supposed conditions under which they were formed, the tracks described being in part those of birds and in part those of quadrupeds. Their preservation he regarded as due to the resubmergence during seasons of flood of the mud flats upon which they were formed.

Through the same medium and this same year Hitchcock reverted once more to the subject and described two new species of thick-toed bipeds, the one renamed *Brontozoum* (from *Ornithoidichnites*) *sillimanium*, and the other *B. parallelum*. In connection with these he described a large and extraordinary track regarded as that of a batrachian and to which he gave the generic name *Otozoum*. He regarded the tracks as having been preserved by being silted in by the waves of spring tides.

Again, in 1848, Doctor Deane came forward with a brief paper and figures of tracks which he thought might with propriety be referred to some member of the tailed or salamandrian family of batrachians, since he discovered markings which seemed to him as probably due to the trailing of the caudal appendage. In this same year Dexter Marsh, the man who first called Doctor Deane's attention to the footprints in 1836, in a long letter to the editor of Silliman's Journal, described and figured footprints which he regarded as those of a quadruped and one that walked step by step and not by leaps.

Previous to the forties Hitchcock had given names only to the tracks, but in 1845, acting under the suggestion made to him by Doctor Deane, he presented, at the meeting of the Association of American Geologists, a catalogue of the animals themselves, so far as known, a plan to which he adhered and defended in his paper in the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, presented in 1848. In this paper he discussed with his usual caution the possibilities of identification and classification from footprints alone, and while he acknowledged that he had no great confidence in the arrangement adopted except in a few instances, went on to submit the following list of genera:

1. *Brontozoum.*
2. *Æthiopus.*
3. *Steropezoum.*
4. *Argozoum.*
5. *Platypterna.*
6. *Ornithopus.*
7. *Polemarchus.*
8. *Plectropus.*
9. *Trixnopus.*
10. *Harpedactylus.*
11. *Typopus.*
12. *Otozoum.*
13. *Palamopus.*
14. *Thenaropus.*
15. *Anomœpus.*
16. *Anisopus.*
17. *Hoplichnus.*
18. *Macropterna.*
19. *Xiphopeza.*
20. *Ancyropus.*
21. *Helcura.*
22. *Herpystezoum.*
23. *Harpagopus.*

Under these names he described 49 species, of which he regarded 12 as certainly quadrupeds; 4 probably lizards, 2 chelonians or turtles, and 6 batrachians. Two were annelids or mollusks; 3 of doubtful character; and the remaining 32 species were bipeds. Eight of these 32 he regarded as being thick-toed tridactylous birds; 14 others were probably narrow-toed tridactylous or tetradactylous birds; 2 were perhaps bipedal batrachians, and the remaining 8 he thought might have been birds, but would more probably turn out to be either lizards or batrachians.

It may be noted, in this connection that, in 1845, Dr. Alton King found fossil footprints in Carboniferous sandstone in Westmoreland County, Pennsylvania. These, though now known to have been tracks of amphibians, were described by King under the names of *Ornithichnites gallinuloides* and *O. culbertsoni*, King accepting their birdlike origin, though assuring the reader that the "popular error that these are the tracks of wild turkeys needs no discussion." Certain other tracks

THE APPLETON CABINET.

found at the same time were recognized as those of quadrupeds, and were described under the generic name of *Spheropezium*.

In the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences for 1849, Deane had again a paper on fossil footprints of the Connecticut Valley, which he regarded as in part those of birds and in part those of reptiles. These were described and figured, but no attempt at classification was made.

In 1858 Hitchcock published his Ichnology of New England, a quarto volume of some 200 pages, with 60 plates of footprints and a map of the Connecticut Valley, showing the distribution of the Triassic sandstone with its included tracks, together with a section across the valley at Springfield. This work is of importance, not merely on account of the detailed description of the tracks, but also as summing up the knowledge of the subject and the prevailing opinion regarding the origin and age of the sandstone itself. The sandstone, it should be stated, had been regarded by many geologists as owing its present dip to its having been deposited upon a sloping floor. To this view Hitchcock now took exception and could find no way of escaping from the opinion that it had been upheaved since its deposition. The age of the sandstone he considered to be undoubtedly Jurassic. He discussed in great detail the character of the tracks, and announced some thirty characteristics which he regarded as based on the principles of comparative anatomy and zoology, and which he thought afforded him reliable grounds from which to judge of the nature of an animal from its tracks. He felt that he could now decide with a good degree of confidence, first, whether the animal making the track was vertebral or invertebral; second, whether a biped, quadruped, or multiped; third, to which of the four great classes of vertebrates it belonged and, with less certainty, to what order, genus, or species the animal might be referred. It was in this work that he first proposed the term *Lithichnozoa* (the stony-track animals), to embrace the animals whose characters he described from their tracks. The classification adopted divided the animals into ten groups: First, *marsupialoid* animals; second, *pachydactylous*, or thick-toed birds; third, *leptodactylous*, or narrow-toed birds; fourth, *ornithoid* lizards or batrachians; fifth, *lizards;* sixth, *batrachians;* seventh, *chelonians;* eighth, *fishes;* ninth, *crustaceans*, *myriapods*, and *insects;* and tenth, *annelidans*.

It will be noted that the Brontozoum was still included under the group of pachydactylous or thick-toed birds.

In 1863 we find Hitchcock again returning to the subject in a brief paper in the American Journal of Science for that year, in which he announced that, though having been compelled to give up ten or a dozen of his old species of footmarks, he had described over thirty new ones. Further, finding that an error had been made as to the

number of phalanges in the tracks of some of the animals classed as *Lithichnozoa*, he confessed to a doubt if the animals heretofore grouped under this name should be classed as birds; and, as a general conclusion, announced that in fossil footmarks birds could not be distinguished from quadrupeds by the number of phalanges. In this same paper he announced the finding of tracks which were accompanied by certain markings which were evidently made by the tail of the animal, such being particularly characteristic of his *Anisopus gracilis*, an animal the quadrupedal nature of which had already been recognized. The presence of such tail-like markings in the case of the *Anomœpus* lead him into a somewhat lengthy discussion as to the affinities of this animal, whether bird or reptile, though he was evidently inclined to regard it as most nearly related to a lower order of birds like the *Archæopteryx*. In support of this, he appended a letter from Professor Dana, in which he referred to the generalized characters of the early birds.

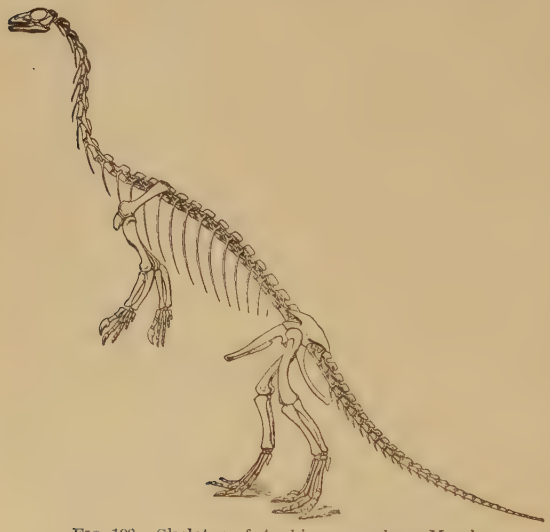


FIG. 123.—Skeleton of *Anchisaurus colurus* Marsh.

Here the matter would appear to have rested until Mr. Roswell Field, a farmer of Greenfield, Massachusetts, on whose property the first slabs were found, for the first time in print voiced his own opinions. In the American Journal of Science, XXIX, 1860, he gave briefly and modestly the results of his experience in collecting and observing, and announced it as his opinion that the vertebral tracks should all be classed as reptilian. That the animals that made them usually walked on two feet he admitted, but contended that they could as well have walked on four had they chosen. In proof of this he added:

> We find tracks as perfect as if made in plaster or wax which, to all appearances, as to the number of toes and the phalangial or lateral expansions in the toes, agree perfectly well with those of living birds, and still we know, by the impressions made by their forward feet, that these fossil tracks were made by quadrupeds.

In still other cases he noted traces of the tails tracking in the mud. Enumerating some of the cases in which the so-called bird tracks —as, for instance, the *Otozoum*, had been proven to be reptilian— he added that this he verily believed is the place for them all. And in this he

was right, but it was not until 1893 that the actual bones of one of the reptiles were found in a sufficiently good state of preservation to allow Prof. O. C. Marsh to make the restoration shown in fig. 123. This particular form was about six feet in height, when standing, as in the figure. "One of the most slender and delicate dinosaurs yet discovered, being only surpassed in this respect by some of the smaller, bird-like forms of the Jurassic." The creature is shown in the figure in the position it is thought to have habitually assumed. On a firm but moist beach only three-toed impressions would have been left by the hind feet and the tail would have been kept free from the ground. On a soft muddy shore the claw of the fifth digit would have also left its mark, and perhaps the tail would have dragged. When, perhaps momentarily, he rested on his fore feet, tracks of a quite dissimilar nature would have resulted, such as at first were assumed to be those of an animal of another species.

And so the matter rests.

Sketch of Doctor Deane.

Dr. James Deane was born at Coleraine, Massachusetts, February 24, 1801, and became by profession a physician, practicing at Greenfield, in the same State. Eminently successful in his practice, he nevertheless found time for study and work in other lines. "Not a moment was lost that he could spare from the great labors of his profession. Late into the night was his lamp seen glittering from his casement * * * while he was copying, with his masterly touch, these relics of an ancient era" (Bowditch). He is described as a man of few words, though of a genial and social character; of a tall and commanding form, and a well knit, compact frame; a man whose very walk conveyed an idea of strength.

SIR WILLIAM LOGAN.
Director of the Geological Survey of Canada.

CHAPTER IX.

THE EOZOON QUESTION.

In his work on the geology of Canada, 1863, Logan described somewhat briefly certain forms strongly resembling fossils which were discovered some three years earlier in the Laurentian rocks belonging to the Grand Calumet series of Canada.

The specimens represented parallel or concentric layers of crystalline pyroxene, the interstices of which were filled with crystalline carbonate of lime, resembling somewhat the structure of the fossil *Stromatopora rugosa* found in the Bird's-eye and Black River limestone. (See fig. 124.) Logan realized the fact that organic remains found entombed in these limestones would, if they retained their calcareous nature, be almost certainly obliterated by crystallization, and it would only be through the replacement of the original lime carbonate by some different mineral substance that there would be any chance of the forms being preserved. Nevertheless, their resemblance to fossil remains was so great that, had the specimens been obtained from the altered rocks of the Lower Silurian series instead of the Laurentian, he thought there would have been little hesitancy in pronouncing them to be true fossils.

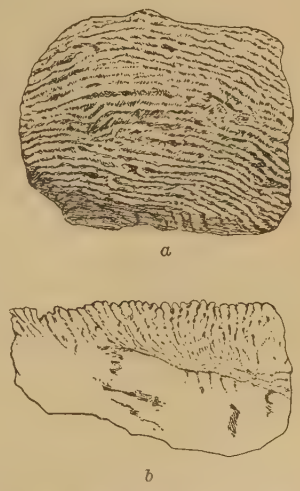


FIG. 124.—Supposed fossil from Laurentian limestone. *a*, Weathered surface; *b*, vertical transverse section (reduced about one-half).

In the Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society of London for 1865 Logan returned to the subject, bringing much new evidence to bear. He described the oldest rocks in North America as those composing the Laurentide Mountains of Canada and the Adirondacks of New York, dividing them into the Lower and Upper Laurentian series, the united thickness of which was estimated to probably exceed 30,000 feet, and this overlaid by a third group (the Huronian), which had been estimated to be some 18,000 feet in thickness. In both the Upper and Lower Laurentian series he found zones of limestone which had sufficient volume to constitute an independent formation.

While studying these rocks he had naturally fallen to speculating upon the possible occurrence of life during the period in which they

were being laid down, and his mind was doubtless in a mood to readily accept any promising discoveries. He recognized the fact that the mere apparent absence of fossils from the crystalline limestone did not seem to offer any proof in negation, since such might have been obliterated by metamorphic action, and he referred to the arguments of T. Sterry Hunt in favor of the possible organic origin of the beds of iron ore and metallic sulphurets in the older rocks. When, therefore, these imitative forms were brought to his attention, he candidly acknowledged himself as being disposed to look upon them as fossils, and, indeed, he exhibited them as such at the meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Springfield in 1859.

FIG. 125 (Nos. 1 to 4).—Small weathered specimens of *Eozoon canadense*. From Petite Nation. 1, Natural size, showing general form and acervuline portion above and laminated portion below; 2, enlarged casts of cells from upper part; 3, enlarged casts of cells from the lower part of the acervuline portion; 4, enlarged casts of sarcode layers from the laminated part. (After J. W. Dawson.)

Subsequently[a] thin sections prepared from these were referred to Dr. J. W. Dawson, of Montreal, who was regarded as the most practiced observer with the microscope. To Doctor Dawson, then, may be given a large share of whatever credit is due for the recognition of the supposed animal nature of this much disputed body.

The specimens first examined by Dawson were from the base of the so-called Grenville limestone, belonging to the highest zones of the Laurentian, the mass of the rock being composed of great and small irregular aggregates of white crystalline pyroxene, interspersed with a multitude of small spaces, consisting mainly of carbonate of lime, many of which showed minute structures similar to that of the supposed fossil. The general character of the rock he thought conveyed the impression that it was a great foraminiferal reef in which the pyroxenic masses represented a more ancient portion, which, having died, had become much broken up and worn into cavities and deep recesses, affording a seat for a new growth of foraminifera, represented by the calcareous and serpentin-

[a] Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society of London, XXI, 1865, pp. 45–69.

ous part. This in turn became again broken, leaving in some places uninjured portions of the general form.

The main difference between this foraminiferal reef and more recent coral reefs, he thought to be, that, while with the latter there are usually associated many shells and other organic remains, in the more ancient one the only remains yet found were those of the animal which built the reef.

Dawson attacked the problem from the zoologist's standpoint. To properly understand his position and also that of those who combated his arguments, it must be remembered that the science of micro-petrography was then in its infancy; in fact the possibilities of meta-somatosis or alteration by indefinite substitution and replacement were only beginning to be realized by even the most advanced of mineralogists and geologists. Hence it was possible for two men, attacking the same problem from opposite standpoints—the one as a chemist and physicist and the other as a zoologist—to arrive at conclusions diametrically opposed to each other.

FIG. 126.—Magnified group of canals in supplemental skeleton of Eozoon. Taken from the specimen in which they were first recognized (Life's Dawn on Earth). (After J. W. Dawson.)

The specimens examined, as already indicated, were masses often several inches in diameter, presenting to the naked eye alternate laminæ of serpentine, or pyroxene, and carbonate of lime, their general aspect reminding one, as already noted, of the Silurian Hydroids of the genus Stromatopora (see fig. 124). Under the microscope Dawson found the laminæ of serpentine and pyroxene to present no organic structure, the pyroxene being highly crystalline. The laminæ of carbonate of lime, on the other hand, he thought retained distinct traces of structure which could be considered only as organic, constituting parallel or concentric partitions of variable thickness inclosing flattened spaces or chambers, frequently crossed by transverse plates or septa. The laminæ themselves were frequently excavated on their sides into rounded pits, and in some places traversed by canals and penetrated by numerous minute tubuli, a structure which can be best understood by a reference to fig. 126.

According to the conclusions of Dawson, the calcareous portion represented the portion of the original shell, the serpentinous matter, on the other hand, being material infiltrated into the cavities which had been occupied by sarcode during the life of the animal. He referred

the supposed organism to the group of Rhyzopods of the order of foraminifera, and conceived that during life they were sessile by a broad base and "grew by the addition of successive layers of chambers separated by calcareous laminæ but communicating with each other by canals or septal orifices sparsely and irregularly distributed." He imagined, further, that the organisms grew in groups which ultimately coalesced and formed large masses penetrated by deep, irregular canals and that they continued to grow at the surface while the lower parts became dead and filled up with the infiltrated matter or sediment, assuming the aspect of a coral reef.

On account of their geological position, he proposed to designate the animals by the name of *Eozoon*, and these particular ones by the specific name of *canadense*, and in his annual address before the Natural History Society of Canada for that year, referred to the dis-

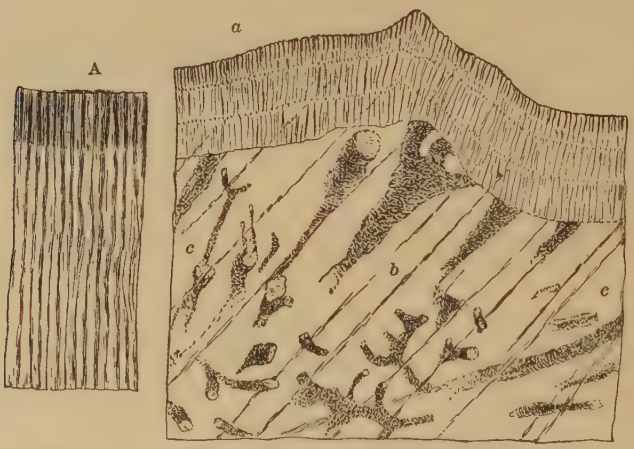


FIG. 127.—Portion of Eozoon magnified 100 diameters, showing the original cell-wall with tubulation and the supplemental skeleton with canals. *a*, Original tubulated wall or "Nummuline layer:" more magnified in Fig. A; *b c*, intermediate skeleton with canals. (After W. B. Carpenter.)

covery as "one of the brightest gems in the scientific crown of the Geological Survey of Canada."

The paper by Dawson was immediately followed by one by the well-known microscopist, W. B. Carpenter, whose conclusions were in every way confirmatory of those of Dawson. To quote his own words:

> That the Eozoon finds its proper place in the foraminiferal series, I conceive to be conclusively proved by its accordance with the great types of that series in all the essential characters of organization, namely, the structure of the shell forming the proper wall of the chambers, in which it agrees precisely with Nummulina and its allies; the presence of an intermediate skeleton and an elaborate canal system, the disposition of which reminds us most of *Calcarina;* a mode of communication of the chambers when they are most completely separated, which has its exact parallel in *Cyclocypeus;* and an ordinary want of completeness of separation between the chambers, corresponding with that which is characteristic of *Carpentaria.*

The chemical and mineralogical side of the problem was taken up by T. Sterry Hunt, who found that the silicate portion, i. e., the material filling the chambers, was composed of serpentine or pyroxene in some of its forms.

It is not surprising that the finding of supposed fossil remains in rocks so old as those of the Laurentian should have excited the widest attention, and it would have been strange indeed had such conclusions been allowed to go unchallenged. In 1866[a] there was read before the same society a detailed account of the investigations made by Profs. William King and T. H. Rowney, of Queen's University in Ireland. These gentlemen, although claiming to have had no misgivings at the commencement of their investigations as to the Eozoonal origin of the material, nevertheless attacked the problem from the physical and chemical rather than the biological standpoint. They examined in great detail all of the structures described by Dawson, though not having access to all his materials. Their conclusions were to the effect that (1) the so-called chamber casts or granules of serpentine were more or less simulated by minerals like chondrodite, coccolite, pargasite, etc.; (2) that the "intermediate skeleton" was closely represented both in chemical composition and other conditions by the matrix of these minerals; (3) that the proper wall of Dawson was structurally identical with an asbestic-form layer which was frequently found investing the grains of chondrodite, and that instead of belonging to the skeleton it was altogether independent of that part and formed an integral portion of the serpentine constituting a chamber cast; (4) that the canal system was analogous to the embedded crystallizations of native silver and other similarly conditioned minerals; and (5) that the type examples of casts of stolon passages were isolated crystals apparently of pyrosclerite. From these considerations and the perhaps even more important one that the Eozoonal structure was found only in metamorphic rocks and never in unaltered sedimentary deposits, they concluded that every one of the specialties which had been diagnosed for the *Eozoon canadense* was of purely crystalline origin.

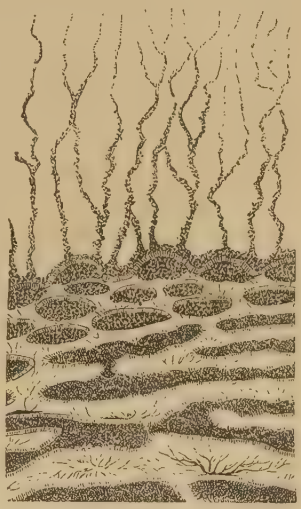


FIG. 128.—Magnified and restored section of a portion of Eozoon canadense. The shaded portions show the animal matter of the chambers, tubuli, canals, and pseudopodia; the unshaded portions the calcareous skeleton. (After J. W. Dawson.)

Such conclusions naturally brought forth prompt rejoinders from Carpenter and others, the controversy becoming in some cases per-

[a] Quarterly Journal of the Geological Society of London, XXII, 1866, p. 185.

sonal and often not particularly creditable to those most interested. Thus Carpenter accused Rowney of never having seen any transparent sections of Eozoon thin enough to give a good view of its tubuliferous layer until he himself had shown it to him; and, further than that, that he had no practical knowledge of the structure of nummuline shells at best. His paper in reply to the statements of Rowney concluded with the remark that he had recently had his attention called to an occurrence of Eozoon, which was preserved simply in carbonate of lime without any serpentine or other foreign mineral, and showing the canal system very perfectly. This he felt was a conclusive answer to King and Rowney's objection No. 3, to the effect that the canal system of Eozoon was no other than crystallization of metaxite, an allomorphic variety of serpentine.

In this same year Ferdinand von Hochstetter found in the crystalline Azoic limestone of Krumman, Bavaria, structures which, when examined by Carpenter, were pronounced by him to be unmistakably those of Eozoon.

The forms thus far found were limited to the Laurentian rocks, and were regarded by both Logan and Dawson as important "horizon markers," i. e., as affording presumptive evidence in favor of the Laurentian age of all rocks in which they might occur. The announcement by C. W. Gümbel of finding Eozoonal structures in the Hercynian gneisses of Bavaria, regarded by him as of Huronian or Cambrian age, was, therefore, both disconcerting and encouraging to the Eozoonists. Gümbel himself adopted enthusiastically the conclusions of Carpenter and Dawson as to the organic nature of the forms. "This discovery," he wrote, "at once overturns the notions hitherto commonly entertained with regard to the origin of the stratified primary limestones. In this discovery we hail with joy the dawn of a new epoch."

In 1867 Sir William Logan again brought the matter to the attention of the Geological Society of London, submitting a specimen of Eozoon obtained in the township of Tudor, Hastings County, Canada, in which the serpentine minerals were quite lacking, it being, in fact, the specimen above referred to by Carpenter. This was examined and described by Dawson, who thought to be able to detect all the essential characteristics of the true Eozoon. In presenting his description of this new find, Dawson took occasion once more to challenge the work of Messrs. King and Rowney, and accused them of making the fundamental error of defective observation in failure to distinguish between organic and crystalline forms, an accusation which he substantiated (?) by a long argument not necessary to reproduce here.

From this time on, literature on both sides of the Atlantic contains many references and matter more or less relevant to the discussion. By many of the best informed the organic nature of the fossil was considered to be an open question, and but few American geologists, so far as I am aware, ever openly advocated it.

In 1871 Messrs. King and Rowney read before the Royal Irish Academy a paper on the geological age and structure of the serpentine marble of Skye, in which reference was made to structures closely simulating those of the Eozoon, the rock in this case being of Liassic age, and the imitative forms being the result of structural and chemical changes to which such siliceous minerals as malacolite and other varieties of lime magnesian pyroxenes were characteristically liable.

This paper was followed the same year by another on the mineral origin of the so-called *Eozoon canadense*, which passed in review all of the accumulated evidence both for and against, reiterating and emphasizing many of the statements made in previous papers. They held that the so-called intermediate skeleton and the chamber casts of the Eozoon were completely paralleled in various crystalline rocks containing pyroxene, the chamber casts being, in fact, composed occasionally of loganite and malacolite besides serpentine, a fact which, instead of favoring the organic origin, as claimed, was to be held as proof of their having been produced by mineral agencies.

With reference to Gümbel's observations regarding the rounded cylindrical or tuberculated grains of coccolite and pargasite which he found in various crystalline marbles and supposed to be chamber casts, they claimed to have found upon such grains crystalline planes, angles, and edges, "a fact clearly proving that they were originally simple or compound crystals that have undergone external decretion by chemical or solvent action."

The so-called nummulitic layer they contended had originated directly from closely packed fibrous or asbestiform serpentine, and that it occurred in cracks or fissures in both the Canadian and Connemara (Ireland) ophite. The fact that the two superposed asbestiform layers forming the upper and under proper wall and their component aciculi often passed continuously and without interruption from one chamber cast to another, they argued was totally incompatible with the idea of this nummuline layer having resulted from pseudopodial tubulation. The canal system they found to be composed of serpentine or malacolite, and to be completely paralleled by crystalline configurations in the coccolite marble of Aker in Sweden, and in the crevices of a crystal of spinel embedded in a calcite matrix from Amity, New York.

Finally, they argued that the occurrence of the Eozoon solely in crystalline or metamorphosed rocks, and never in ordinary unaltered deposits, must be assumed as completely demonstrating their purely mineral origin. The paper was aggressively argumentative from the start and contains a very scathing review of Dawson's work, further expressing a willingness to renounce the controversy altogether, "fully believing that Doctor Dawson can employ his time more usefully on other subjects than that of Eozoon."

The evidence, however, was not altogether one way. Max Schultze, after an examination of a specimen transmitted him by Dawson, announcing that "there can be no serious doubt as to the foraminiferal nature of *Eozoon canadense*." Further evidence against the organic nature of the Eozoon was, however, furnished by Mr. H. J. Carter in 1874, in a letter to Professor King, and published in the Annals and Magazine of Natural History of that year. After a somewhat elaborate comparison of the structure of Eozoon with that of known foraminifera, he wrote:

> But in vain do we seek in the so-called *Eozoon canadense* for an unvarying perpendicular tubuli, the *sine qua non* of foraminiferal structure. * * * In short, in vain do we look for the casts of true foraminiferous chambers at all in the grains of serpentine. They, for the most part, are not subglobular but subprismatic. With such deficiencies I am at a loss to conceive how the so-called *Eozoon canadense* can be identified with foraminiferous structure except by the wildest conjecture.

To the conclusions of Carter, Carpenter took violent exception and accused that gentleman of not having read anything that had been written bearing upon the other side of the question; of having no comprehensive knowledge of foraminiferal structure, and of having seen only those samples of Eozoon submitted by Professor King; and hence his imputation to the effect that the organic nature of the Eozoon had no other basis than "the wildest conjecture" was to be regarded "simply as specimens of a new method of language which might be termed *Carterese*." He then went over once more certain disputed points and concluded by saying:

> An experience of thirty-five years * * * has given me, I venture to think, some special aptitude for recognizing organic structure when I see it; and I never saw, in any fossil whatever, more distinct evidences of organic structure than are to be seen in these finer ramifications of the canal system of Eozoon.[a]

Perhaps the most important paper on the subject after those mentioned was that of Dr. Carl Moebius, of Kiel, in 1879. Moebius, it should be noted, was a zoologist and microscopist. He claimed to have been first led to the study of the Eozoon through observations of the structure of a rhyzopod found by him in 1874 on the coral reefs near Mauritius. Sections of these growths so closely resembled the representations of Eozoon sections published that he resolved to make a careful investigation of the latter for purposes of comparison with his *Carpentaria raphidodendron* and other foraminifera. With this object in view, he investigated upward of 90 Eozoon sections, which were placed at his disposal through the kindness of Doctor Carpenter, and many of which originally belonged to Professor Dawson.

[a] "For treweley there is noon of us all,
If any wight wol claw us on the galle,
That we nvl kike."

The result of Moebius's work was not at all, presumably, what Carpenter was led to expect or Dawson to hope. He wrote:

My task was to examine the Eozoon from a biological point of view. I commenced it with the expectation that I should succeed in establishing its organic origin beyond all doubt, but facts led me to the contrary. When I saw first the beautiful stem systems in Professor Carpenter's sections, I became at once a partisan of the view of Professor Dawson and Professor Carpenter, but the more good sections and isolated stems I examined the more doubtful became to my mind the organic origin of Eozoon, until at last the most magnificent canal systems taken altogether and closely compared with foraminiferal sections preached to me nothing but the inorganic character of Eozoon over and over again.

Dawson thereupon became particularly indignant, and characterized Moebius's work as furnishing "only another illustration of partial and imperfect investigation, quite unreliable as a verdict on the question in hand." He claimed that Moebius should have studied the fossil *in situ* and in its various stages of preservation; that he confounded the "proper wall" with the chrysotile veins traversing many of the specimens; and that, further, in his criticisms he regarded each structure separately, and did not "consider their cumulative force when taken together." This cumulative force he presented as follows:

1. It (i. e., *Eozoon*) occurs in certain layers of widely distributed limestones, evidently of aqueous origin, and on other grounds presumably organic.

2. Its general form, lamination, and chambers resemble those of the Silurian *Stromatopora* and its allies, and of such modern sessile foraminifera as *Carpentaria* and *Polytrema*.

3. It shows under the microscope a tubulated proper wall similar to that of the nummulites, though of even finer texture.

4. It shows also in the thicker layers a secondary or supplemental skeleton with canals.

5. These forms appear more or less perfectly in specimens mineralized with very different substances.

6. The structures of Eozoon are of such generalized character as might be expected in a very early Protozoan.

7. It has been found in various parts of the world under very similar forms, and in beds approximately of the same geological horizon.

8. It may be added, though perhaps not as an argument, that the discovery of Eozoon affords a rational mode of explaining the immense development of limestones in the Laurentian age; and on the other hand that the various attempts which have been made to account for the structures of Eozoon on other hypotheses than that of organic origin have not been satisfactory to chemists or mineralogists, as Doctor Hunt has very well shown.

Singularly enough, although found on the Western Continent, active work regarding the nature of the Eozoon was confined largely to the Canadians and English, with an occasional European collaborator, workers in the United States taking little part in the dispute so far as indicated by literature, although watching the contest with interest and becoming more or less partisans, according to the extent of their own observations or the character of the evidence offered. In 1871 Messrs. Burbank and Perry made a study of the Eozoonal

limestone occurring at Chelmsford, Bolton, and Boxboro, in Massachusetts, and arrived at the conclusion that the limestones were not themselves of a sedimentary, but a vein-like character, and that consequently the Eozoon itself, as there occurring, must be of mineral and not organic origin.

Meantime the study of micro-petrography was steadily advancing, and it was noticeable that none of the workers along these newly developed lines of research were disposed to regard the Eozoon as of other than inorganic origin. Prof. T. G. Bonney, of St. John's College, Cambridge, England, who in 1876 announced his opposition to the theory of organic origin, in 1884 visited one of the most noted of the Canadian localities in company with Doctor Dawson, and published the results of his observations in the Geological Magazine for 1895, but contented himself with describing the mode of occurrence and structure of the mass without committing himself further as to its

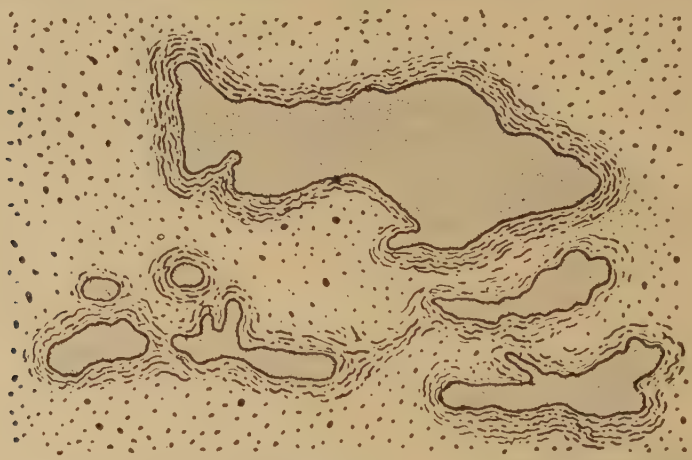


FIG. 129.—Diagram of eozoonal rock at Côte St. Pierre. The closely dotted part is pyroxene or serpentine; the top mass being about 2 feet 3 inches long. The zones of "Eozoon" are indicated by the broken wavy lines generally surrounding these masses. The remainder of the rock is white crystalline limestone spotted with granular serpentine. (After T. G. Bonney.)

origin. From this paper was taken the accompanying figure. His conclusions so far as given were to the effect that the Eozoon often occurs in close relation, on the one hand, with a fundamental mass of almost pure pyroxene (or serpentine resulting from its alteration); or, on the other hand, with a fairly large mass of crystalline limestone containing more or less numerous grains of pyroxene or serpentine. He found nothing to lead him to think the Eozoonal specimens were blocks of foreign material metamorphosed by becoming included in either a volcanic or plutonic mass as has been suggested (see p. 645). The structure, to his mind, offered a choice between two interpretations only. It "is either a record of an organism or a very peculiar and exceptional condition of a pyroxene marble of Laurentian age."

The fact that the lime-magnesian pyroxenes, through a process of chemical metamorphism, passed over into serpentine, and that many of the supposed sarcode chambers were filled with granules of this material in all stages of this alteration was from time to time noted by Messrs. King and Rowney, Julien, Williams, Wadsworth, Merrill, and others. The evidence thus presented was, however, wholly without effect on Messrs. Carpenter and Dawson, who to the very last remained true to their convictions, and as late as 1895 Dawson reviewed the subject with seeming thoroughness and announced his original opinion as unchanged.

It remained, however, for J. W. Gregory and H. J. Johnston-Lavis, to give the deathblow to the theory as late as 1891 and 1894. Gregory, from an exhaustive study of Dawson's original specimen of the so-called Tudor Eozoon, arrived at the conclusion that the same was wholly of an inorganic nature. After a careful examination of all the slides and figures, he wrote:

> I must confess myself absolutely unable to recognize in the specimen any trace of the proper wall, canals, or stolon passages which are claimed to occur in Eozoon.

The case against the organic nature of the specimen did not, however, rest upon negative evidence alone. The rock was intensely cleaved and crumpled. The twin laminæ in the planes of crystalline cleavage in the calcite bands were, however, not bent. Further than this, the bedding plane could be traced directly across the specimen, traversing the limestone in the supposed body cavities. These facts would seemingly prove conclusively that the supposed organic forms were not original, but wholly secondary and due to metamorphism.

Johnston-Lavis's later work was perhaps even more decisive, since he showed that structures in every way similar could be produced by the action of heat upon limestone. His conclusions were based upon an examination of microscopic slides from blocks of limestone in the volcanic tuffs of Monte Somma. To appreciate his evidence it must be remembered that these blocks are ejected from the volcano and are found embedded in a tuff consisting largely of pumiceous lava. They occur as irregular, angular, or subangular masses ranging to more than a cubic meter, though commonly less than a quarter of that size. They have been acted upon by the heat and vapors of the volcano and more or less completely metamorphosed, giving rise to various silicate minerals, including pyroxene, olivine, epidote, mica, etc. The structure of these altered limestones is entirely different from that of the unaltered material, and corresponds in all details with those of the original Canadian specimens, in many cases, on account of their freshness, exhibiting some of the pseudo-organic structure details—such as stolon passages—in far greater perfection than does the true so-called Eozoon.

It has been noted that American workers took comparatively little part in active research, though it does not necessarily follow that examinations of the problematic bodies were not made sufficient to enable them to hold opinions of their own. It is interesting, therefore, to note that few of the active workers accepted unhesitatingly the organic theory, and many of them rejected it entirely. The consensus of opinion to-day is so decidedly against the organic nature of the body that it may be considered as practically settled, although Dana, in the latest issue of his Manual, includes a copy of one of Dawson's original figures, and sums up the evidence pro and con without prejudice.

There is apparently no doubt but that this simulative form is due merely to a process of chemical metamorphism, a process of indefinite substitution and replacement, technically *metasomatosis*, acting upon rocks which are granular aggregates of lime-magnesian pyroxenes, with more or less calcareous matter, the serpentine being, in all cases, secondary. Such an origin is suggested at once, even to the uninitiated, by reference to figures like that of Bonney's, on page 644. Similar structures have, moreover, been noted by various observers in rocks which were unmistakably of igneous origin.

Specialization is, undoubtedly, essential to the rapid advancement of knowledge, but there is danger of specialization being carried too far - danger that the individual, through insufficient breadth of training or through too close application to his own particular hobby, may ignore the work of his neighbor along other lines, and perhaps in time become so immune as to be unable to appreciate that work, even when its details are laid before him.

In the review of the Eozoon question, much must be allowed for the growth of science - the gradual increase in knowledge regarding both mineral structure and mineral alteration. Still, one who peruses these papers can but feel that had Messrs. Dawson and Carpenter had a little more knowledge of mineralogy they would have been less dogmatic in their assertions, and it is possible that had Messrs. King and Rowney had more knowledge of foraminiferal structure they might have been less harsh in their criticisms.

"'My children,' the chameleon cries,
(Then first the creature found a tongue,)
'You all are right and all are wrong.
When next you talk of what you view,
Think others see, as well as you,
Nor wonder, if you find that none
Prefers your eyesight to his own.'"

CHAPTER X.

THE LARAMIE QUESTION.

It will be recalled that Hayden, in his annual report for 1872, referred to the fact that during his explorations of the Tertiary formations along the upper Missouri River in 1854–55 he made large collections of shells and plants, many of which were quite new to science. During the succeeding years up to the autumn of 1860 these explorations were extended and large additions made to the collections, which were described from time to time in the current literature.

The shells were all of extinct species of fresh-water origin and, while they did not appear to be positively characteristic of any age, were regarded by Meek as more nearly resembling Tertiary types than any other. The fossil plants were mostly of extinct species and regarded by Newberry as also of Tertiary age, probably Miocene.

From evidence of this kind, accumulated during the various expeditions, Hayden had announced the conviction that these *Lignitic* strata, as he called them, which had been found to occupy such vast areas in the upper Missouri Valley—extending far southward, with very little interruption, to New Mexico, and westward into the interior of the continent—were probably all portions of one great group, interrupted here and there by mountain chains or concealed by more modern deposits, and from the identity of their fossil flora, all of Tertiary age.

He then went on to state that his studies of the lower coal beds at Bear River City, Wyoming, and Coalville, Utah, in 1868, had convinced him that these particular beds were of Cretaceous age, but admitting this, he felt, would be to admit the Cretaceous age of all the coal beds of the Northwest, and in so doing to ignore the evidence of the fossil flora altogether. The facts then at hand, he thought, seemed rather to point to the conclusion that the deposition of all the Lignitic strata began during the latter portion of the Cretaceous period and continued on into Tertiary time without any marked physical break, so that many of the Cretaceous types, especially of the vertebrata, may have lingered on through the transition period, even into the Tertiary epoch. Inasmuch as this statement contains the first satisfactory recognition of the full importance of what later became known as the Laramie question, and inasmuch, further, as the dis-

cussion brought out many interesting facts and opinions relative to the proportional value of the various kinds of fossil remains as horizon markers, the subject may be dwelt upon in some detail.

It is well to anticipate, however, in order to more readily understand what is to follow, that Hayden made a fundamental error in thus assuming an identity of age for all the lignite strata. Had he realized the fact, afterwards abundantly proven, that essentially similar conditions existed at various periods in localities not widely remote from one another, and which were productive of very similar results, the so-called "Laramie question," as it is known to-day, would never have arisen. The apparently conflicting character of the fossil remains of plants and animals was, nevertheless, extremely confusing, and some discussion and verbal warfare during the gradual accumulation of the necessary data for the final settlement of the problem was bound to arise. It will be well to note, further, that the localities from whence was derived the major portion of the evidence brought to bear were: Fort Union, Nebraska; the Judith River, on the upper Missouri, Montana; Coalville, Utah; and Bear River and Bitter Creek, in Wyoming. Incidentally, other localities in Colorado and New Mexico came in for discussion.

During the season of 1872 Lesquereux, Meek, and Cope were assigned by Hayden to work in areas which seemed to afford the most promising opportunities for deciding the question as to the precise position of the beds in the geological scale. Their reports as rendered in the annual reports for 1872–73 were widely divergent and did little more than to emphasize the existing confusion.

Lesquereux worked, of course, wholly from a paleobotanical standpoint. He explored the plant-bearing Cretaceous strata of the Dakota group and the valley of the Saline River, as well as the Smoky Hill Fork of the Kansas River and the Lignite formations of the Rocky Mountains from Trinidad to Cheyenne and along the Union Pacific Railroad to Evanston. He made extensive collections and studied the materials in great detail, comparing the forms found with those from sundry of the known geological horizons in Europe. The summary of his conclusions, as given in his own words, was to the effect

> That the great Lignitic group must be considered as a whole and well-characterized formation, limited at its base by the fucoidal sandstone, at its top by the conglomerate beds; that independent from the Cretaceous under it and from the Miocene above it our Lignitic formations represent the American Eocene.

Meek regarded the Coalville and Bear River beds as Cretaceous, but argued for the Bitter Creek beds that the entire absence among the invertebrate fossils yet found of *Baculites*, *Scaphites*, *Ancyloceras*, *Ptychoceras*, *Ammonites*, *Gyrodes*, *Anchura*, *Inoceramus*, and all of the

other long list of genera characteristic of the Cretaceous certainly left its molluscan fauna with strong Tertiary facies. When, however, he came to consider these fossils in their specific relation he found that all, with possibly two or three exceptions, were new to science and quite different from those yet found either at Bear River or Coalville, or, indeed, elsewhere in any of the established horizons. He felt, therefore, that he could scarcely more than conjecture from their specific affinities to known forms what the probable age of the rocks might be in which they were found. He, however, called attention to the following facts relative to the age of the formation as found at Bitter Creek:

First. That it was conformable to an extensive fresh-water Tertiary formation above, from which it did not differ materially in lithological characters except in its containing numerous beds of coal.

Second. That it seemed also to be conformable to a somewhat differently composed group of strata below, apparently containing little, if any coal, and believed to be of Cretaceous age.

Third. That it showed no essential difference of lithological characters from the Cretaceous coal-bearing rocks at Bear River and Coalville.

Fourth. (Omitting references to Lesquereux's determinations) that all its animal remains thus far known were specifically different from any of those found in any other formation of this region, with possibly two or three exceptions.

Fifth. That all its known invertebrate remains were mollusks, consisting of about thirteen species and varieties of marine, brackish, and fresh-water types, none of which belonged to genera peculiar to the Cretaceous or any older rocks, but all to such as are alike common to the Cretaceous, Tertiary, and present epochs, with possibly one exception.

Sixth. That, on the other hand, two or three of its species belong to sections or subgenera apparently characteristic of the Eocene-Tertiary of Europe, and even very closely allied to species of that age found in the Paris basin, while one species seemed to be conspecific with and two congeneric with forms found in brackish-water beds on the upper Missouri containing vertebrate remains most nearly allied to types hitherto deemed characteristic of the Cretaceous.

Seventh. That one species of Anomia found in it is very similar to and perhaps identical with a Texas Cretaceous shell, while a *Viviparus*, found in one of the upper beds, is almost certainly identical with the *V. trochiformis* of the fresh-water Lignite formations of the upper Missouri, a formation which has always been considered as Tertiary.

He summed up his evidence as follows: It thus becomes manifest that the paleontological evidence bearing on the question of the age of this formation, so far as yet known, is of a very conflicting nature; though aside from the Dinosaur bones (found by him at Black Butte in 1872) the organic remains favor the conclusion that it is Tertiary. The testimony of the plants, however, on this point, although they doubtless represent what would be in Europe considered as clearly a Tertiary flora, is weakened by the fact that we already know that there is in Nebraska, in clearly Cretaceous rocks, a flora that was referred by the highest European authority to the Miocene.

In the report for 1873 (printed in 1874) Lesquereux returned once more to the subject and answered more or less satisfactorily various objections which had been made to his previous conclusions. He referred to the Eocene (Lower American Eocene) all the coal strata of the Raton Mountains; those of the Canyon City coal basin; those of Colorado Springs; those of the whole basin of central and north Colorado extending from Platte River or from the Pinery divide to south of Cheyenne, including Golden, Marshall, Bowlder Valley, Sand Creek, etc.; and in Wyoming, the Black Butte, Hallville, and Rock Spring coal. He considered as American Upper Eocene or Lower Miocene the coal strata of Evanston, and from identity of the characters of the flora, those 6 miles above Spring Canyon near Fort Ellis, those of the locality marked near Yellowstone Lake among basaltic rocks, and those of Troublesome Creek, Mount Brosse, and Elk Creek, Colorado. The coal from Bellingham Bay, in Washington, he would also refer to the same horizon. To the Middle Miocene he would refer the coal basin of Carbon and those of Medicine Bow, Point of Rocks, and Rock Creek; to the Upper Miocene, the coal of Elko Station, Nevada.

Concerning the evidence of invertebrates regarding the Cretaceous age of these beds, he simply remarks:

> I regarded and still regard the presence of some scattered fragments of Cretaceous shells as of little moment in comparison with the well-marked characters of the flora, characters which have been wholly established by a large number of specimens obtained from all the localities referred to the Lignitic.

Cope, in his report for this same year, was inclined to agree with Hayden in thinking that the period of the deposition of the sediments of this Lignite or Fort Union group, as it was also called, was one of transition from marine to lacustrine conditions and added:

> It appears impossible, therefore, to draw the line satisfactorily without the aid of paleontology, but here, while evidence of interruption is clear from the relations of the plants and vertebrate animals, it is not identical in the two cases, but discrepant.

He then went on to discuss the evidence as given by the various workers, and referring to Lesquereux and Newberry's opinions, based

upon the flora, to the effect that the whole series of formations is of Tertiary age, summed up his results as follows:

I regard the evidence derived from the mollusks in the lower beds and the vertebrates in the higher as equally conclusive that the beds are of Cretaceous age. There is, then, no alternative but to accept the results that a Tertiary flora was contemporaneous with a Cretaceous fauna, establishing an uninterrupted succession of life across what is generally regarded as one of the greatest breaks in geological time.

Practically the same conclusion was independently arrived at by King in his study of the Green River coal basin in connection with the surveys of the fortieth parallel.[a] He wrote:

We have, then, here the uppermost members of the Cretaceous series laid down in the period of oceanic sway and quite freely charged with fossil relics of marine life; then an uninterrupted passage of conformable beds through the brackish period up until the whole Green River basin became a single sheet of fresh water.

It will be seen then that the transitional character of the beds was very generally recognized, the main point in dispute from now on being that of their Upper Cretaceous or Lower Tertiary age.

A. R. Marvine, in his report for this year (1873), also discussed the problem, but somewhat guardedly, since his opportunities for observation had confessedly been somewhat limited. He wrote, after summarizing the opinions of others:

It must be supposed, then, that either a Cretaceous fauna extended forward into the Eocene period and existed contemporaneously with an Eocene flora, or else that a flora wonderfully prophetic of Eocene times anticipated its age and flourished in the Cretaceous period to the exclusion of all Cretaceous plant forms.

Again, and much more to the point, he wrote:

Much of the confusion and discrepancy has, in my opinion, arisen from regarding different horizons as one and the same thing. It must be distinctly understood that this group as it exists east of the mountains in Colorado is very different from, and must not be confounded with, the horizon in which much of the Utah and New Mexican lignite occurs, and which belongs undoubtedly to the Lower Cretaceous; and, further, that the extended explorations of Hayden and others would seem to prove almost conclusively that the Colorado lignite group is the direct southern stratigraphical equivalent of the Fort Union group of the upper Missouri, which is considered generally to be no older than the Eocene, while Newberry asserts that it is Miocene.

To Lesquereux's conclusions in the report for 1872, Newberry, in an article in the American Journal of Science, 1874, took exception, calling in question the accuracy of many of his statements, and affirming that, to his "certain knowledge," a considerable portion of the flora he called Eocene was really Cretaceous and another portion Miocene. Further than that, having spent nearly two years in New Mexican explorations, he felt authorized to state that all the lignite beds yet known in New Mexico were unmistakably of Cretaceous age. While, through lack of acquaintance with the Colorado localities cited

[a] The third volume, 1870.

by Lesquereux, he would not venture to doubt the truth of his assertions regarding the same, he nevertheless reminded him that: (1) The flora of the Colorado lignite beds had almost nothing in common with that of the European Eocene, in his judgment not a single species and scarcely any genera being common to both; (2) that the tuberculated fucoid (Halymenites), considered by Lesquereux as diagnostic of the Eocene, was really in New Mexico the most characteristic fossil of the Cretaceous; and (3) that, guided by their animal remains, Professors Marsh, Meek, Cope, and Stevenson had all regarded the Colorado lignites as Upper Cretaceous.

Newberry further contended that in the plant beds which he had himself designated as Miocene the entire aspect of the flora was identical with the Miocene of Europe, and contained a very considerable number of well-marked Miocene species, not one of which deserved to be called Eocene. The lignite plant beds of New Mexico, which he called Cretaceous but which Lesquereux referred to the Tertiary, were for the most part derived from the lower portions of our Cretaceous series, and were overlaid by many hundreds of feet of unquestionable Cretaceous strata in which all the typical Cretaceous forms were represented.

He further announced the principle that:

> In the absence of any distinctive or unmistakably Eocene plants, if the strata which contain them (the lignite deposits) shall be found to include vertebrates or molusks which have a decidedly Mesozoic aspect, we shall have to include them in the Cretaceous system.

To Lesquereux's claim that the testimony of his 250 species of fossil plants far outweigh that of the Cretaceous mollusks, he rejoined that these plants were probably all distinct from European Cretaceous and Eocene species and had little or no bearing on the question in hand. He acknowledged it was not impossible that the physical condition of the continent may have been such that the Cretaceous age faded gradually into the Tertiary, and that consequently some forms of Cretaceous life might be found interlocking with those of Tertiary age, but of this he demanded proof, and asserted that as yet none such had been found.

J. J. Stevenson, meeting with these same beds in his work in connection with the Wheeler Survey (1874), pronounced in favor of their Upper Cretaceous age. As for the nodose fucoid Halymenites, he agreed with Newberry that it was not indicative of their Eocene age, since it was never found with any but a Cretaceous fauna. Neither was the evidence of the land plants acceptable to him, the materials being mostly single leaves and in a state of preservation showing that they had been blown from trees growing near streams or on the shore, where they were washed into the sea and became associated with at

least one fossil identified with the Cretaceous, and a few of which were identical with European species.

It was more reasonable, he thought, to suppose that in the later portion of the Cretaceous period the climate in our northwestern region was like that of the European Eocene than to imagine that our Cretaceous fauna is useless for determination of horizon in the narrow strip east of the mountains in Colorado, while acknowledging it to be decisively of Cretaceous age in New Mexico, the rocks being the same, but the leaves being absent.

To Newberry's criticisms Lesquereux replied[a] that the Cretaceous age of the so-called halymenites sandstone had not yet been proven and could not be decided on mere affirmation; but that when Doctor Newberry had furnished sufficient proof or evidence on the geological age of the lignites of New Mexico he was prepared to accept his decision. The quoted opinions of Marsh, Cope, and Stevenson he claimed were based on insufficient evidence. All the repeated assertions of the finding of fossil shells and bones of Cretaceous age in the lignites of Colorado, when carefully sifted down, reduced themselves to the finding of a single badly-preserved specimen of *Inoceramus*.

He asserted that the lignitic formation, having positively a preponderance of land plants over marine animals, in other words, being composed wholly of detritus from the land or a *land formation*, as he styled it, the evidence presented by the fossil plants should outweigh in importance that of some Cretaceous animal remains, whose presence could be considered as of casual occurrence. Cope's conclusions, he argued, did not in the least interfere with his own, simply proving the noncoincidence of animal and vegetable types in certain formations, but if, he added:

> Tertiary and Cretaceous faunas are regarded as contemporaneous, even inhabiting the same repositories, we may more easily admit that a Cretaceous fauna and Tertiary flora have sometimes succeeded each other in alternating strata.

Lesquereux further contended that the specimens on which Doctor Newberry had relied to substantiate the sum of the opinions he advanced had become mixed and had, in reality, come from different localities and represented different horizons.

In his report for 1874 (letter of transmittal written in October, 1875) Hayden took up the matter once more, with particular reference to the results of investigations in Colorado. These he felt warranted him in drawing the following conclusions:

First. That through the upper portion of the Fox Hill group (Cretaceous) there are clear proofs of a radical physical change, usually with no break in the sequence of time. In this portion of the group

[a] American Journal of Science, 1874.

are well-marked Cretaceous fossils of purely marine types and no others.

Second. That above the Fox Hill group there are about 200 feet of barren beds, which might be regarded as beds of passage to the lignitic group and which more properly belong with the Fox Hill group below. In this group of transition beds all trace of the abundant invertebrate life of the great Cretaceous series below has disappeared.

Third, in almost all cases he found, at the base of the true Lignitic group, a bed of sandstone in which the first deciduous leaves peculiar to the group occur. No purely marine mollusks pass above this horizon. Estuary or brackish-water shells are found in many localities in great abundance, but these soon disappear and are succeeded farther north by fossils of purely fresh-water origin. He added:

> Whatever view we may take in regard to the age of the Lignitic group, we may certainly claim that it forms one of the time boundaries in the geological history of our western continent. It may matter little whether we call it Upper Cretaceous or Lower Eocene, so far as the physical result is concerned. We know that it plays an important and, to a certain extent, an independent part in the physical history of the growth of the continent. Even the vertebrate paleontologists, who pronounce with great positiveness the Cretaceous age of the Lignite group, do not claim that a single species of vertebrate animals passes above the horizon I have defined from the well-marked Cretaceous group below.

Peale, in his report for that year, threw a ray of light upon the subject by suggesting that the reason of the difference of opinion as to the age of the disputed beds might be the existence of two sets of lignite-bearing beds close together, one belonging to the horizon of the Fox Hill beds of the Cretaceous, or possibly a little above it, and the other belonging to the horizon of the Fort Union group (Lower Eocene). He incidentally called up the question relative to the value of different types of fossils as criteria in determining the precise geological horizon.

He summed up his own conclusions as follows:

> First. The lignite-bearing beds east of the mountains in Colorado are the equivalent of the Fort Union group of the upper Missouri, and are Eocene-Tertiary; also, that the lower part of the group, at least at the locality two hundred miles east of the mountains, is the equivalent of a part of the Lignitic strata of Wyoming.
>
> Second. The Judith River beds have their equivalent along the eastern edge of the mountains below the Lignite or Fort Union group, and also in Wyoming, and are Cretaceous, although of a higher horizon than the coal-bearing strata of Coalville and Bear River, Utah. They form either the upper part of the Fox Hill group or a group called "Number Six."

In his annual report to Hayden for the same year (1874, printed in 1875), Lesquereux went over all the ground once more, showing to his own satisfaction, presumably, the conclusive character of the evidence offered by fossil plant remains, and announced again his conviction to the effect that the authority of animal remains should be unquestioned

so far as it relates to marine formations, but when land formations are considered, the plant remains should be given precedence.[a]

Meanwhile, Dr. C. A. White, paleontologist, became connected with the Hayden survey, being assigned for his first season's work (1877) to the area of northwestern Colorado. In this connection he came quickly in contact with the problem we have been discussing, and early committed himself in favor of the post-Cretaceous age of the beds in question.

He argued that it was a well-known fact that the evolutional advance of the vegetable kingdom had been greater on this continent than in Europe. Hence, a student of the flora of the American strata, using a series of European standards, would naturally refer those which he found to contain certain vegetable forms to the Tertiary period, while the associated or superimposed remains of animal life might all show them to be of Cretaceous age, according to the same series of European standards.

Taking into consideration the fact that the physical changes which took place in western North America during the Mesozoic and Cenozoic periods were very gradual and without any important break, he would be led to expect to find those animals, whose existence was not necessarily affected by a change from a saline to a fresh condition of the waters, to have propagated their respective types beyond the period which those types in their culmination distinctly characterized. For this reason he felt that these perpetuated types did not necessarily prove the Cretaceous age of the strata, they being evidently the last of their kind, and because, moreover, all the other known fossil remains of the group indicated a later period. He would, therefore, refer the beds, which had now, according to an agreement between King and Hayden, become known as the *Laramie*, to a post-Cretaceous age.

Referring again to the matter in his report for 1877, White conceded that Cretaceous types (dinosaurs) of vertebrate animals were found in the higher strata of the Laramie group and did not question the correctness of referring the plant remains even of the very lowest beds to the Tertiary; noting also that the invertebrate fossils were indecisive, since the species were new to science and could not be safely compared with those found elsewhere. Without committing himself, he then offered a suggestion in effect as follows: Since none of the American Cretaceous could be considered as equivalent to the Lower Cretaceous of other parts of the world, but must be considered as

[a] Marsh, it may be noted incidentally, in 1877, in discussing the problem of the boundary between the Cretaceous and Tertiary, announced that in his opinion the evidence of the numerous vertebrate remains was decisive in favor of the Cretaceous view.

Upper Cretaceous, these Laramie rocks which, if Cretaceous at all, were certainly at the very top of the Upper Cretaceous, must represent a great and important period wholly unrepresented in any other part of the world.

Further, the finding of evidence of an abundant mammalian life (Tertiary) immediately following the Laramie period, which in itself contained only Cretaceous vertebrate remains (dinosaurs), suggested to him a sudden ushering in of the Tertiary types which could be accounted for only on the supposition that such originated elsewhere, and were contemporaneously in existence with the Cretaceous forms, i. e., prior to the close of the Laramie period. Their apparent sudden appearance could then be accounted for on the supposition that the physical barrier was removed by some of the various earth movements connected with the evolution of the continent.

To these same opinions he held in his report for 1878, adding that, if the conclusions of all the leading paleontologists regarding the Eocene-Tertiary age of the Wasatch, Green River, and Bridger groups be accepted, "then is there additional evidence of the correctness of the view that the Laramie is a transitional group between the Cretaceous and Tertiary, partaking of the faunal characteristics of both periods."

Hayden, in his report for this year (1878), argued that the Fort Union beds of the upper Missouri River are the equivalent of the Lignitic formation, as it exists along the base of the Rocky Mountains in Colorado, and of the Bitter Creek series west of the mountains; also that it was probable that the brackish-water beds on the Upper Missouri must be correlated with the Laramie, and that the Wasatch group, as now defined, and the Fort Union group are identical as a whole, or in part, at least.

In his report on the systematic geology of the Fortieth Parallel Survey (1878), King again attacked the advocates of the Eocene age of these beds. He reviewed the evidence and announced his convictions, as before, in favor of their being Cretaceous.

He agreed with Hayden in regarding the Laramie and underlying Fox Hill as strictly conformable, but found a very decided unconformability between the uppermost Laramie containing the dinosaur remains and the immediately overlying rocks of the Vermilion Creek group, which carried mammalian remains. The unconformity here mentioned for the first time is, with the exception of the suggestion made by Peale, perhaps the most important feature yet introduced into the discussion, and it is probable, as elsewhere suggested by King, that had Hayden seen this locality earlier, the question as to the exact position of the Laramie beds might never have arisen.

His conclusions, as summed up in his recapitulation of the Mesozoic, are as follows:

> The Laramie, by its own vertebrate remains, is proved to be unmistakably Cretaceous and the last deposit of that age, and it contains no exclusively fresh-water life. Its plants resemble European Tertiary, but its Dinosaurs are conclusive of Cretaceous age. It was the last of the conformable marine deposits of middle America. Its latest period of sedimentation was immediately followed by an energetic orographic disturbance, which closed the Mesozoic age. In that orographic action the inter-American ocean was obliterated and the Cretaceous locally thrown into great and steep folds. The following deposits over the Green River area were fresh-water lacustrine lowest Eocene strata, lain down nonconformably with the Cretaceous, except in accidental localities.

In 1885 the problem was taken up by L. F. Ward in an exhaustive paper on the Flora of the Laramie Group. This, although destructive in its criticism rather than decisive, nevertheless contained many important suggestions. After a summary of opinions held by previous workers, he wrote:

> Taking all these facts into consideration, therefore, I do not hesitate to say that the Laramie flora as closely resembles the Senonian (Cretaceous) flora as it does either the Eocene or the Miocene flora, but I would insist that this does not necessarily prove either the Cretaceous age of the Laramie group or its simultaneous deposit with any of the Upper Cretaceous beds. The laws of variation and geographical distribution forbid us to make any such sweeping deductions. With regard to the first point, it is wholly immaterial whether we call the Laramie Cretaceous or Tertiary, so long as we correctly understand its relations to the beds above and below it. We know that the strata immediately beneath are recognized Upper Cretaceous, and we equally know that the strata above are recognized Lower Tertiary. Whether the first intermediate deposit be known as Cretaceous or Tertiary is, therefore, merely a question of name, and its decision one way or another can not advance our knowledge in the least.

In this, it will be noted, he followed closely the opinions already expressed by Hayden.

Other statements of Ward's in this connection are worthy of consideration. He pointed out that there was no probability that the conditions existing during the Laramie deposition would be ever exactly reproduced elsewhere, and hence the chances were as infinity to one against the existence of other beds that should contain an invertebrate fauna identical with that of the Laramie group. Further than this, he regarded the law laid down by paleontologists that the same epochs in geologic time produced the same living forms, as quite contrary to the now well-established principles of geographical distribution.

Amidst all this confusion and conflict of opinion, the fact was becoming more and more apparent that under the term *Laramie* had been included beds belonging to various but not widely separated horizons. King and Hayden, it will be recalled, had believed it to contain all the coal beds of the region in which it occurs and to be sharply circum-

scribed both above and below, the main point in dispute being whether it should be relegated to the Cretaceous or the Tertiary. As time went on, but particularly after the organization of the present survey, more careful and detailed work became possible. The Bear River beds were shown by Drs. C. A. White and T. W. Stanton, in 1891, to belong to the marine Cretaceous; the upper portion in Colorado and Wyoming was found by Cross, Hills, and Weed to be out of harmony with that beneath, and was relegated to the Eocene-Tertiary; the Laramie proper becoming more and more restricted as the work of differentiation went on.

In 1897 Drs. F. H. Knowlton and T. W. Stanton, the one a paleobotanist and the other a paleontologist, together made a personal inspection of many of the important localities, and, after passing the evidence in review, concluded that the so-called Ceratops beds of Converse County, Wyoming, should be referred to the Laramie group; that the coal-bearing series of the Laramie Plains is older than the "true" Laramie, and, instead of conformably overlying the Fox Hills group, is itself overlain by it.

The Bitter Creek and Black Buttes beds they considered as belonging to the "true" Laramie, and also those of Crow Creek, Colorado, while those of Point of Rocks, in the Bitter Creek Valley, were regarded as Cretaceous (Montana). The base of the Laramie (after a review of the opinions of Hatcher, Hills, King, and Hayden) they would place "immediately above the highest marine Cretaceous beds of the Rocky Mountain region," the top being marked by the Fort Union beds. In other words, the Fort Union beds are now regarded as Eocene and the lower-lying as Laramie Cretaceous.

Both these workers, it is well to note, conformed to the generally received opinion that "marine invertebrates (fossils) are more accurate and definite horizon markers than either plants or nonmarine invertebrates, because they have a less extended vertical and a broader geographic distribution."

O. C. Marsh, the reader will perhaps remember, had in 1891 announced the general principle that all forms of animal life are of value as horizon markers "mainly according to the perfection of their organization or zoological rank." Following out this principle, he regarded plants as unsatisfactory witnesses, invertebrates as much better, and vertebrates as the best of all, as offering "reliable evidence of climatic and other geological changes."

CHAPTER XI.

THE TACONIC QUESTION.

"Now, who shall arbitrate?
Ten men love what I hate,
Shun what I follow, slight what I receive;
Ten, who in ears and eyes,
Match me; we all surmise,
They, this thing, and I, that;
Whom shall my soul believe?"

It is presumably scarcely necessary to call attention to the fact that the older rocks of the earth's crust are exposed, in a majority of cases, only where this crust has been disturbed through such folding and faulting as is incidental to mountain making. As a result of such processes these older rocks are, in the main, considerably altered and their origin as well as geological age at times quite indeterminable.

The attempt to fix the base of the Paleozoic strata or, in other words, to find a line of demarkation and division between the non-fossil-bearing and the most ancient members of the overlying fossiliferous strata has, therefore, proven a matter of the greatest difficulty both in America and abroad. In Great Britain and on the Continent manifestation of this is found in the voluminous literature relating to Sedgwick's Cambrian and Murchison's Silurian systems. In America a similar controversy was contemporaneously waged, which has come down to history under the name of the Taconic question.

In his report on the second geological district of New York, published in 1842, Ebenezer Emmons gave his first detailed account of the Taconic system. A review of the subject may well, therefore, begin with this paper, though an occasional earlier reference may be necessary.

In his report for 1838 Emmons had stated that the Potsdam sandstone was the oldest sedimentary rock occurring in the vicinity of Potsdam (New York) and that no rock intervened between it and the primary. In this opinion, to which he ever afterwards adhered, he was quite correct. Overlying the Potsdam sandstone and always in the same order he found the Calciferous sandrock, the Chazy, Bird's-eye, and Trenton limestones, the Utica and Hudson River slates, etc.

An examination of the country at the foot of the Hoosac Mountains in western Massachusetts showed what appeared to him an entirely different series resting, like the Potsdam, directly upon the gneiss, but in

which none of the rocks of the previous series appeared. This series was described in his own words as below, the order of superposition

Fig. 130.—Map of original Taconic area.

being shown in the section reproduced herewith which the reader will note is given in a reversed position, the left being east and the right west (fig. 131):

1. A coarse granular limestone of various colors which I have denominated the *Stockbridge limestone*, taking its name from a well-known locality, one which has furnished the different parts of the Union a large portion of the white and clouded marbles which have been so extensively employed for building and other purposes in construction.

2. *Granular quartz rock*, generally fine grained, in firm, tough, crystalline masses of a brown color, but sometimes white, granular, and friable.

3. Slate, which for distinction I have denominated *Magnesian slate*, from its containing magnesia, a fact which is distinctly indicated by the soft feel peculiar to rocks when this earth forms a constituent part.

4. Sparry limestone, generally known as the *Sparry limerock*.

5. A slate, which I have named *Taconic slate*, and which is found at the western base of the Taconic range. It lies adjacent to the Lorrain or Hudson River shales, some varieties of which it resembles. In composition it contains more alumina and less magnesia than the magnesian slates.

The series occupied an area extending from the Hoosac Mountains westward, passing over the Hoosac Valley, Saddle Mountain, and also over the high ridge of granular quartz known as Oak Hill, just north of the Williamstown Plain, the Taconic Mountains next west of the Massachusetts boundary, and the eastern border of New York west of this boundary to the Hudson.

To this series, which Emmons conceived to be older than the Potsdam, he proposed in 1841 to give the name Taconic, after the Taconic

FIG. 131.—Section of Taconic Rocks. A, Primary schists; 1, granular quartz, or brown and white sandstone; 2, 2, Stockbridge limestone; 3, 3, magnesian slate: 4, Sparry limestone; 5, Taconic slate; 6, roofing slate; 7, rough coarse siliceous beds; 8, flinty slate; 9, Hudson River shales. (After E. Emmons.)

range, elevating it to the dignity of a system. His persistent advocacy of the actuality of this system gave rise to a controversy extending over more than half a century and equaled by none in the annals of American geology, not exceeded even by the Eozoon question noted elsewhere. Unmoved by argument, to the day of his death Emmons adhered faithfully to his "system," although from the very first he noted its most inherent weakness—that in no case had the Potsdam sandstone been found resting upon any of its members. That this system was actually an older, lower-lying series was indicated only by the fact that neither were any of its members found intercalated with the overlying series, which always occupied the position and relationship given above.

It must be remarked, by way of preliminary explanation, however, that the region, as shown by subsequent studies, is one where faulting, folding, erosion, and metamorphism have prevailed to an extent then undreamed of, and where, as a consequence, all natural criteria had become so obscured as to make a prompt solution of the problem impossible. The science of geology grows through cumulative evi-

dence. The greatest minds and the most acute of observers were bound, by the then existing condition of knowledge, to make incomplete observations and faulty deductions.

The original section, as noted, was some fifteen miles in length.

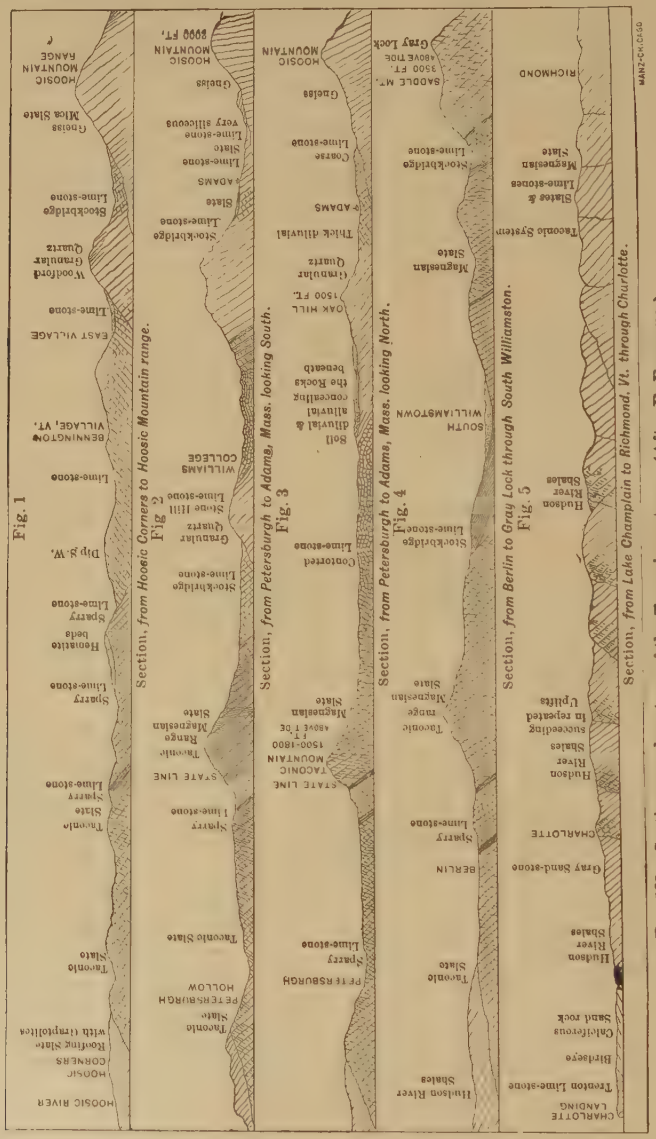


FIG. 132.—Sections explanatory of the Taconic system. (After F. Emmons.)

The rocks were all pronounced as unfossiliferous and dipped throughout to the eastward, their relative ages being judged wholly by superposition, the Stockbridge limestone, where it rested immediately upon the gneiss, being regarded as the oldest of the series.

The first announcement of this conclusion appears to have been made at the Philadelphia meeting of the American Association of Geologists and Naturalists, held in April, 1841. Unfortunately neither the paper nor the discussion which followed was printed in detail. It is stated by Dana, however, that the matter was discussed by H. D. Rogers, Edward Hitchcock, William Mather, James Hall, and Lardner Vanuxem, all of whom had worked in the region. It is stated, further, that none of the gentlemen, with the exception of Vanuxem, favored the views put forward by Emmons.

During the summer following both Rogers and Hall studied the section, as described by Emmons, in the field, Rogers rendering a report to the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia at the meeting in 1842. In this report Rogers sustained the views previously advocated by Hitchcock, Hall, Mather, and himself, to the effect that the rocks were Lower Silurian (as the term was then used) extending from the Potsdam upward, but much flexed and disguised by partial metamorphism. Hall for some reasons failed to make a report at the time, though later claiming to have written out his notes very fully (see p. 671).

In his paper in the Report on the Geology of the Second District of New York, in 1842, where the system is first elaborated, Emmons referred to Rogers's conclusions, and seemingly himself recognized the possibility of the various beds of limestone being but portions of the same bed, brought to the surface by successive uplift. He did not, however, regard the same as probable. The system as a whole he thought to be the equivalent of the Lower Cambrian of Sedgwick, the upper portion being the lower part of the Silurian system.

Although the Proceedings of the American Association of Geologists were not given in full, as already noted, the opinions of Mather regarding the Taconic have fortunately been handed down to us in his Report on the Geology of the First New York District, dated 1843. In this he made use of the term in his descriptions, but stated emphatically that the "Taconic rocks are the same in age as those of the Champlain division, but modified by metamorphic agency and the intrusion of plutonic rock."

In December, 1844, Emmons brought out in pamphlet form a revision of the Taconic system, with additions and an extension of its limits. This was published without change as a chapter in his Report on the Agriculture of New York, under date of 1846. The most important feature of this revision related to the finding of fossil crustacean remains in the Black slate of Bald Mountain, in Washington County, New York. These he accounted for on the supposition that the beds, instead of being the lowermost, as he first supposed, belonged in reality to the top of the series, and had come into their present position through a reversion of the strata, adopting thus in part Rogers's

ideas as to flexures and overthrust faults. The order of succession of the strata would then stand as below, that given in the paper of 1842 being introduced for comparison. It will be at once noted, as later charged by Dana (1888), that "the system is for the most part turned the other side up."

Taconic system, 1842.	*Taconic system, December, 1844.*
6. Stockbridge limestone.	6. Black slate, Bald Mountain.
5. a. Magnesian slate of Greylock—perhaps a repetition of No. 3. b. Granular quartz.	5. Taconic slate.
4. Limestone.	4. Sparry limestone.
3. Magnesian slate of Taconic Mountain.	3. Magnesian slate.
2. Sparry limestone.	2. Stockbridge limestone.
1. Taconic slate.	1. Granular quartz.

The system as here outlined, Emmons argued, occupied a position inferior to the Champlain division of the New York system, or the lower division of the Silurian system of Mr. Murchison.

FIG. 133.—*Atops trilineatus.*

The fossils found in the Black slate, it should be mentioned, were Trilobites—*Atops trilineatus*, a form allied to *Triarthris beckii* and *Elliptocephala asaphoides*, and annelid markings, chiefly those of *Neireites* and *Myrianites*. These were described by Hall in 1846, and the ground taken that the *Atops* and *Triarthrus* were identical and referable to the Hudson River group, the *Elliptocephala* being referred to the genus *Olenus*,[a] an Upper Cambrian form.

At the Boston meeting (1847) of the Association of American Geologists and Naturalists, Prof. C. B. Adams discussed the Taconic rocks of the northern part of Addison County, Vermont, a locality judged to be particularly favorable for study, since the rocks pass here from a highly to but slightly metamorphosed and disturbed condition. He exhibited sections of Snake and Bald mountains and from Lake Champlain to the Green Mountains, and thought to show that the Taconic quartz rock was probably the metamorphic equivalent of the red sandrock (regarded by Adams as belonging to the Champlain division of the New York geologists), and that the Stockbridge limestone was the equivalent of the calcareous rocks overlying the red sandrock, rather than that of the lower limestone of the Champlain division.

[a] Later, *Olenellus* of the Lower Cambrian.

Inasmuch as the value of the evidence furnished by the fossil remains had become largely a matter of individual opinion, a committee, of which Mr. S. S. Haldeman was chairman, was appointed at the same meeting of the association to investigate. The report, as given by this committee in the American Journal of Science for 1848, was to the effect that so far as could be determined from the fragmental character of the specimens submitted, *Atops* and *Triarthrus* were not identical, but *A. trilineatus* was "a fossil characteristic of the stratum investigated and named by Professor Emmons."

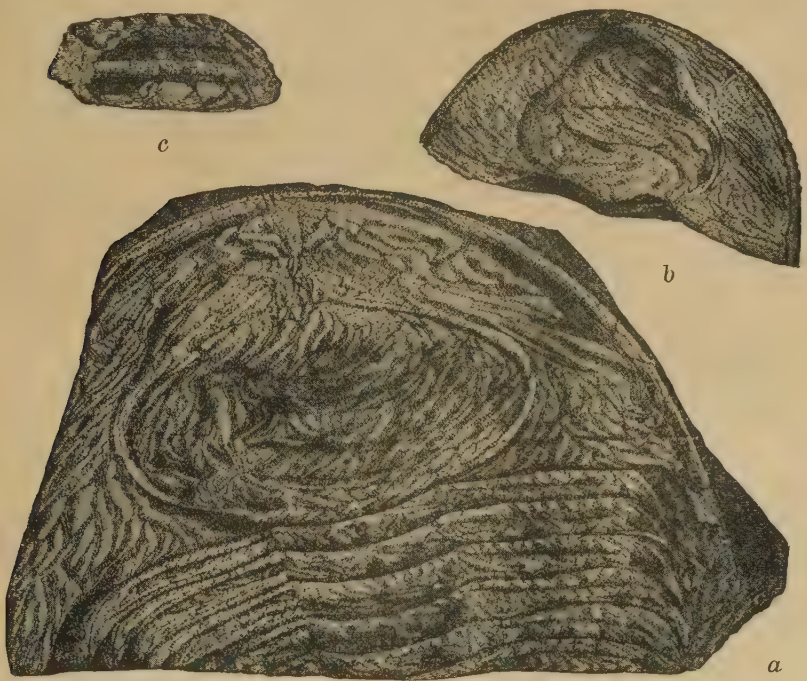


FIG. 134.—*Elliptocephala asaphoides*. *a* is a large individual much flattened by pressure; the natural joints of the slate pass through the specimen. The tail and a portion of the body are wanting. I have named this *Elliptocephala asaphoides*. The ellipse upon the buckler appears to be a characteristic marking, while the ribs and middle lobe resemble very strongly the same parts of the Asaphus tyrannus. In its perfect form the ellipse seems to belong to the old and perfect individual. *b* is the head of a small individual of the same species. The ellipse in this individual has an anterior segment not to be seen in *a*, which I suppose may be obliterated by age. *c* is a fragment of a trilobite, probably, but the ribs bear a different character from those we generally meet with.

To this report Hall naturally took exception, and in the Journal for the same year reviewed the subject and published figures giving reasons for thinking that the distinctions noted by the committee were not "actual and constant," but merely those of individuals, and reaffirming the statement that the two forms were essentially identical. Hall was in turn replied to by Emmons, but nothing conclusive was brought forward.

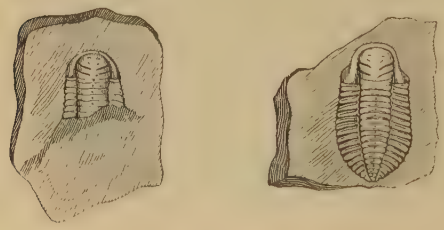
In 1849 the ubiquitous Hunt entered the field, siding, as it chanced, with the opinions of the opponents of the system, though later he shifted his ground. No new facts were, however, presented, and the matter is mentioned here only on account of the characteristically emphatic and apparently decisive manner in which his opinions were expressed, however fanciful may have been their basis.

Little of consequence now occurred until 1855, when Professor Emmons brought out his volume on American Geology, in which he made his third presentation on the subject. In this he extended the system from Maine to Georgia and subdivided it into an upper and lower portion, the fossiliferous portion being called the Upper Taconic and the nonfossiliferous the Lower Taconic. The Sparry and Stockbridge limestones were brought together as one formation, while the synclinal character of Mount Greylock was recognized and figured.

Taconic system in 1855.

Upper Taconic.	2.	Black slate of Bald Mountain.
	1.	Taconic slate.
Lower Taconic.	3.	Magnesia slate.
	2.	Stockbridge limestone.
	1.	Granular quartz.

As here given, the system, as stated by Dana with reference to that of 1844, had a top and bottom of Cambrian rocks. The succession in the Lower Taconic was the same as in the publication of 1844.



a *b*

FIG. 135.—*a*, *Triarthus beckii*; *b*, *Triarthus eatoni*.

In 1854 or 1855 trilobites related to those of Bald Mountain were found in the Black slates of West Georgia, Vermont. Passing into the hands of Zadock Thompson, the assistant in the geological survey of the State, the specimens were sent to Professor Hall, and in 1859 were figured and described as belonging to the shales of the Hudson River group, one of the minor subdivisions of the Lower Silurian system, under the names of *Olenus thompsoni*, *O. vermontana*, and *Peltura holopyga*, the beds being thus, in his opinion, made equivalent to the Bald Mountain slates already noted. In this he was, however, in error.

The problem was not, however, confined to American soil. In 1856 there were found in the limestone belonging to the so-called graywacke series at Point Levi, opposite Quebec, a trilobite fauna of a nature sufficient to convert the paleontologist, Elkanah Billings, of the Canadian survey, to the views of Emmons, and cause him to affirm that the

graywacke group lay below the Trenton in stratigraphic position.[a] In this view Logan at first acquiesced, but applied to the beds as there developed the name *Quebec* rather than Taconic, subsequently extending the name to the whole belt of Taconic rocks reaching from the St. Lawrence to the Hudson River.

In 1860 Barrande, the eminent Bohemian paleontologist and authority on the Silurian, read before the Geological Society of France a memoir in which he adopted in full the conclusions of Emmons regarding the Taconic system, pronouncing the Georgia, Vermont, trilobites as unquestionably of Primordial age and characteristic of a great Taconic system extending far below the *Olenus* or *Paradoxides*[b] zone.

Subsequent discoveries seemed to show that Barrande was misled through the character of the evidence available, he himself not having studied the question in the field. Be this as it may, his accession to the ranks of the "Taconists" for a time greatly strengthened their cause, through sheer weight of authority, and did much to complicate the situation, while the use made of his writings and personal letters by Marcou swelled the literature and confused the question until for a time the correct solution seemed hopeless. And here it may be remarked that, however conclusive and convincing the writings of Marcou may appear, the arguments he advanced were founded almost altogether upon the works of others, or, in some cases,

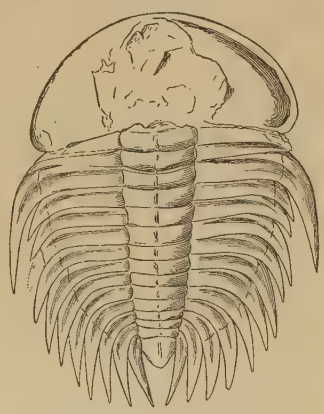


FIG. 136.—*Olenus thompsoni.*

[a] Subsequent investigations have shown that the masses in which these fossils were found were but blocks or fragments in a conglomerate, itself a member of the Quebec group. Billings's conversion was, however, thorough, as shown by the following:

MONTREAL, *10th Nov., 1860.*

MY DEAR MR. MEEK:

* * * The discovery of the Point Levi fossils, and also of those published by Hall under the name of *Olenus* (from Vermont), opens out a new field in American geology. I have received several letters from Barrande on the subject. In the last one received, two days ago, he says that Angelin was then in Paris, and that he had shown him both Hall's figures and mine. Angelin agrees with him that Hall's species, and also mine from limestone No. 1, are of the Primordial type. The Quebec rocks are undoubtedly the Taconic rocks of Emmons. It will be rare sport if Emmons, after standing alone for 25 years against the majority of the *élite* (or at least those who consider themselves the élite) of American geologists, should after all be right. His unfortunate Taconic system has been annihilated and proved not to exist regularly once a year for the last twenty years, and yet it once more raises its head with a new life. I firmly believe that in the main he is right, although he may be wrong in some minor details. * * *

E. BILLINGS.

[b] The Paradoxides is a trilobite found in Sedgwick's Middle Cambrian, of England.

upon no other basis than prejudice in favor of or against certain individuals. From the time of his Pacific Railroad survey work Marcou did scarcely anything in the field, but contented himself with sitting as critic upon the work of others. For this reason he was of little actual service to American geology and his writings and opinions are not quoted in detail here, although unquestionably many of his suggestions were of value.

In 1861 there was issued the final report on the geology of Vermont by Hitchcock and A. D. Hager. On paleontological evidence the Stockbridge limestone was here set down as not older than Silurian. Cross sections showed Mounts Anthony, Equinox, Æolus, and others to have a synclinal structure, the limestone beneath and the slates above as Emmons had shown for Mount Greylock. The stratigraphy was, therefore, in favor of Emmons's view, but the paleontology was against it and no decision was reached as to the age of the quartzite.

In 1863, the year of Emmons's death, there appeared the first edition of Dana's Geology. In this the Potsdam sandstone was made to include the Primordial and the equivalent of the era of the *Paradoxides* and the Primordial beds of Scandinavia and Bohemia. The Georgia slates were also recognized as Primordial, in this conforming to the ideas of Barrande and Emmons.

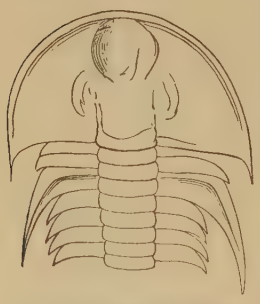


FIG. 137.—*Olenus vermontana.*

In 1869 Prof. J. B. Perry, of Vermont, entered the lists and argued in favor of the system as presented by Emmons. He was subsequently shown, through the discovery of fossils and the existence of numerous unsuspected faults and folds, to have been in error.

In 1870 the Rev. A. Wing, of Vermont, working with the avowed intention of settling the vexed question as to the age of the limestone, slates, and quartzites in the West Rutland region, found fossils in the limestone which Billings identified as probably belonging to the Chazy epoch of the Canadian (Lower Silurian) period. Still others were found, sufficient to show that the beds range from the Calciferous to and including the Trenton, and that consequently the overlying slates must be of Utica or Hudson River age, and were not limited to the Quebec group, as Logan had supposed.

In 1872 Elkanah Billings published in the Canadian Naturalist an article on the age of the black slate and red sandrock of Vermont, in which he took occasion to refer to the Taconic system and announce his views on the subject. He contended that in the consideration of this question "nearly all of the leading geologists of North America" had ranged themselves upon the wrong side; that, while for nearly a quarter of a century Doctor Emmons stood almost alone, during the last

thirteen years a great revolution of opinion had come about; and that the idea that the rocks of the Taconic system were really above the Potsdam sandstone (as had been contended) had been exploded. (See letter to Meek quoted above.)

As he understood the matter at the time of writing, some of the Taconic rocks were certainly more ancient than the Potsdam, while others might be of the same age, and perhaps some of them more recent. The details, he felt, had not yet been worked out, and on account of the extremely complicated structure of the region, he ventured to say that no man at that time living would ever see a perfect map of the Taconic region. The present indications are favorable to this view of the subject.

The theory that the Taconic rocks belong to the Hudson River group, he went on to say, was an "enormous error" that originated in the geological survey of New York and thence found its way into the Canadian survey. The mistake was doubtless due to the extraordinary arrangement of the rocks, the more ancient strata being elevated and often shoved over the more recent, so that, without the aid of paleontology, it was impossible to assert positively that they were not the age of the Hudson River formation, as they appeared to be. The main object of his note was acknowledged to be, to show that while the error had originated in New York, it was corrected by the geological survey of Canada.

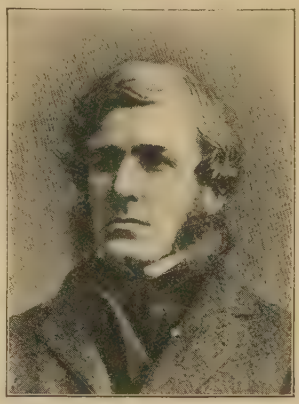


FIG. 138.—Elkanah Billings.

This article brought out a reply by J. D. Dana in the American Journal of Science for June, 1872, in which he called Billings's attention to the fact that, while he, Dana, might differ with Billings about the Taconic, the differences, after all, were not material, since Billings viewed the Taconic as developed by Emmons through successive interpolations year after year, and not as first announced in 1842. He called his attention, further, to the fact that the system was based on a section fifteen miles long, made across the Taconic Range, through Williamstown and Greylock, to North Adams on the east and to Petersburg or Berlin on the west; that the dip was originally throughout to the eastward; and that the beds were destitute of fossils and their relative age judged by superposition, according to which the Stockbridge or North Adams limestone—the most eastern rock in the section—would be the most recent.

Referring to Emmons's discovery of a fossiliferous black slate at Bald Mountain, New York, he stated that, according to Emmons's principle adopted in 1842, this slate being to the west of the Taconic,

should be older than the Taconic proper, and therefore that his Taconic system was actually newer than the fossiliferous rock. This evidently being to his (Emmons's) mind impossible, he was thence led to think out a way by which rocks might dip eastward and still be newer to the westward and that, "without a fact or even an argument to sustain it, he announced in his agricultural report, published in 1843, this as the true order. He thus, by a stroke of his pen, tipped over the Taconic system and got the black slate to the top with all other Taconic rocks beneath it."

This black slate interpolation in 1843, according to Dana, thus brought mischief to the Taconic system and to much American geology and was styled by him "a most desperate blunder." Billings's work he regarded as eliminating the black slates from the system. Dana went on to state that the quartzite, which in the publication of 1842 occurred toward the middle of the section, was, in that of 1843, placed at the bottom of the Taconic series. Hence in this "perfected Taconic" the rocks which Billings had shown to be nearest to the pre-Silurian of all the Taconic beds were thus placed at the remote ends of the system, the black slate at the top and the quartzite at the bottom, the former being of Primordial age and the only rock series which had yet proven to be pre-Potsdam.

Dana acknowledged that Emmons was deserving of honor for combating the old idea which had prevailed among geologists and paleontologists, to the effect that the Taconic slates belong to the Hudson River period; yet he contended that he "blundered in everything else," determining nothing correctly as regarded the age or order of succession of the rocks of the system, and "his assumptions after 1842 were so great as to order of stratification and faults, and his way of sweeping distant rocks into his system so unscientific, that his opponents had abundant reasons for their doubts." He went on to say that no one knew, even at that date, what the precise age of the slates of the Taconic Mountains might be, although Logan's view that they belong to the Quebec seemed nearest the truth. The only way, he argued, for geologists to get out of the Taconic perplexity was to go back to Emmons's original report and section of 1842. "The name Taconic," he wrote, "belongs only to the era represented by the rocks of the Taconic Mountain," and nowhere else.

In a series of articles in the American Journal of Science, beginning with December of 1872, Dana showed the conformability of the Taconic slates and schists of the Taconic Mountains and the Stockbridge limestone and quartzite, and on the basis of the discoveries of Wing and Billings, pronounced the limestone to be of Trenton and Chazy age and the schists and slates to be of Hudson River age, in this agreeing with Rogers. He also pointed out that the same beds of metamorphic rocks might vary as do their unconsolidated representa-

tives, being quartzite in one part and mica-schist or even gneiss elsewhere, and hence that purely lithological evidence as to the identity of beds was practically worthless. This is a little amusing as coming from Dana, who himself accepted the presence of the mineral chondrodite in the limestones of Berkshire as evidence of the Archean age.

In 1878, T. Nelson Dale found brachiopods belonging to the Hudson River group in the Taconic slates at Poughkeepsie. In this same year W. B. Dwight began work in the "Sparry limestone" of Dutchess County, New York, finding fossils of undoubted Lower Silurian age.[a] These finds and others made by S. W. Ford and I. P. Bishop in adjacent localities were made use of by Professor Dana in his subsequent papers.

Dana continued in the field at intervals until 1889, accepting as his working basis the Chazy fossils found by Doctor Wing at West Rutland, and accompanying and working conjointly with Wing throughout the period. In 1879 he showed on stratigraphic and fossiliferous evidence that the Taconic schists, so called, as developed in Dutchess and adjacent counties, were of the age of the Hudson River group, and the five limestone belts there found, but five successive outcroppings of the Lower Silurian limestone brought to the surface by a series of flexures. In this he agreed in the main with Mather.

In 1884, Hall for the first time put himself fully on record as opposed to the Taconic system on stratigraphic as well as paleontological grounds. In this year he sent Dana copies of two sections of the Taconic area and manuscript notes claimed by him to have been made prior to 1845, and which gave the result of his own studies. In these Mounts Anthony and Equinox are shown to have a synclinal structure, the limestone underlying a broad synclinal of slates and schists, the former being put down as Trenton and lower, while the slates and schists were of Hudson River age. Prompt publication would have given Hall priority over the Vermont survey and others, but owing to the long delay the matter is of only historical interest.

In Volumes XXIX and XXXIII (1885 and 1887) of the American Journal of Science, Dana again takes up the subject systematically under the caption of Taconic Rocks and Stratigraphy, the paper being accompanied by a map of the region and numerous sections. He showed that the flexures throughout the Taconic area were of a prevailing synclinal habit; that the limestone was a continuous formation lying underneath the mountains and was overlaid conformably by strata of quartzite and quartzitic and ordinary mica schist, and underlaid along the eastern border by quartzite and mica schist also. He further showed that within the Taconic region the texture and mineral nature of the limestone beds varied geographically, the crystalline texture being coarser to the southward and eastward. He found no evidence

[a] Dwight later found Cambrian fossils in these same rocks.

of general overthrust faulting affecting the entire region. As to the age of the rocks he remained conservative, but still regarded the limestone as beyond doubt Lower Silurian, though whether Trenton, Chazy, or Calciferous remained an open question.

In the Journal for 1886 he referred again to the matter, questioning the reliability of the lithological evidence put forth by Emmons as to the identity of his Taconic rocks and those of Sedgwick's Cambrian, asserting that "geological investigation with reference to the Cambrian had not advanced so far as to make its application safe." In this paper he reported also the finding in Canaan, New York, of Lower Silurian fossils in Sparry limestone, this being the oldest stratum of the Taconic system, as announced by Emmons in 1842. These fossils were sliced and studied by Professor Dwight, of Poughkeepsie, and S. W. Ford, and identified as belonging probably to the Trenton period.

In 1886, C. D. Walcott, then paleontologist of the U. S. Geological Survey, took up the subject, giving a summary of his results, with map, in the American Journal of Science of April and May, 1888. Walcott began with a systematic study of the slates, limestones, and quartzites of Vermont and the adjoining counties of New York, continuing his work the following season and paying particular attention to areas within the counties of Washington and Rensselaer, New York; Bennington, Vermont; and Berkshire, Massachusetts, since here were found the series of sections described by Emmons and nearly all the localities mentioned by him.

FIG. 139.—Charles Doolittle Walcott.

Mr. Walcott showed to his own satisfaction and that of most of those having any detailed knowledge of the subject that the quartzite series belong to the Middle Cambrian, the talcose slates to the Upper Cambrian, the limestones to the Calciferous,[a] Chazy, and Trenton, and the slates and sandstones to the Hudson River group. He agreed mainly with Emmons in his lithological descriptions and the general dip and arrangement of the strata, but disagreed with him in his identification of the geological age of the formations of the Lower Taconic, the stratigraphic relations of his Lower and Upper Taconic, and also as to the value of the stratigraphic and paleontological identifications of age. He showed that the granular quartz, supposed by Emmons to be unfossiliferous and to lie at the base of his Taconic system, was actually fossiliferous and the equivalent of the greater portion of the

[a] The supposed Middle Cambrian and a part of the Calciferous here described were subsequently relegated to the Lower Cambrian.

Upper Taconic;[a] also that this quartzite was a shore deposit formed at the same time as were the silico-calcareous muds in deeper waters, and which Emmons had included in his Upper Taconic. The Stockbridge limestone, which Emmons had regarded as a peculiar pre-Silurian deposit, he showed on paleontological evidence to be the equivalent of the Trenton, Chazy, and Calciferous limestones of the Lower Silurian,[b] while the Talcose slate resting conformably upon the Stockbridge limestone was found to contain graptolites of Hudson River age. Emmons's subdivision of Upper Taconic he regarded as merely due to a repetition of certain beds brought up by an overthrust fault, as shown in fig. 140.

Walcott in his summary of the paleontological evidence relative to the Taconic, stated: (1) The trilobites described by Emmons in 1844–

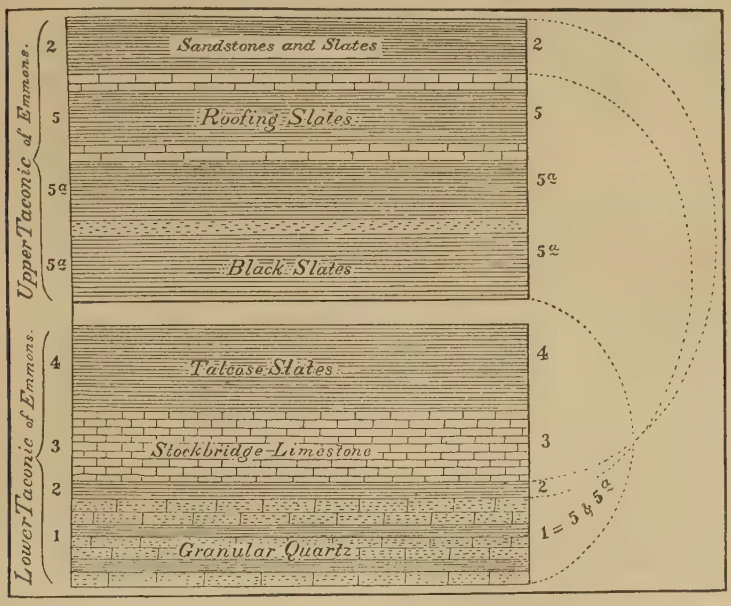


FIG. 140.—Tabular view of Taconic Strata as arranged by E. Emmons. (After C. D. Walcott.)

1847 from the black slate were referred then to the highest member of the Taconic system on stratigraphic evidence; but (2) in 1856 were, on evidence of the same kind, referred to the lowest member.[c] (3) That in 1859 they were referred to a pre-Potsdam position[d] by comparison with a fauna whose position had been stratigraphically determined with relation to the Silurian fauna. Further, (4) that the

[a] These are now accepted as basal Lower Cambrian.

[b] But, later, Foerste and Wolff found Lower Cambrian forms near the base of these rocks at Rutland, Vermont.

[c] Subsequent studies seem to show that Emmons was correct in this.

[d] They are to-day referred to the Lower Cambrian.

Nereites and other trails which Emmons regarded as typical for the Taconic had not yet been stratigraphically located, while (5) the graptolites formed part of the fauna of the Hudson terrane.

Emmons's errors, according to Mr. Walcott, were due almost wholly to his trust in lithological characters; his supposed unconformity between the Taconic and Champlain systems was based primarily on the similarity in lithologic characters of the Calciferous sand rock of the Lower Silurian, and the Calciferous sand rock of what is now known, from its fossils, to be a part of his upper Taconic; also that he confused the dark shales of the Lower Silurian with those of his upper Taconic and failed to recognize the obvious fact that the Calciferous terranes were frequently represented in geological sections by a shale undistinguishable from that of the Hudson River; and that in several places the Trenton limestone is replaced by shale. According to T. N. Dale, Emmons was also in error in assuming that the slates along the east foot of the Taconic range dipped to the east, he having confused cleavage with bedding.

FIG. 141.—Section of Bald Mountain from the south. The profile of the mountain and position of the Cambrian and Lower Silurian rocks are taken from a photograph. The "Upper Taconic"= Cambrian slate, sandrock and limestone are shown to the right of the fault, and *c*=Chazy limestone; *x*=dark shales, interbedded between *c* and the Calciferous sandrock, E; *s*=dark argillaceous shales beneath the Calciferous sandrock. (After C. D. Walcott.)

At the eighth meeting of the American Committee of the International Geological Congress, which was held in New York in April, 1888, the subject of the subdivision and nomenclature of the American Paleozoic formations was discussed, and incidentally the matter of using the name Taconic, and its limitations, if used at all, was pretty thoroughly gone over. A considerable diversity of opinion was found to exist; although the committee at first reported in favor of retaining the name, they were apparently subsequently led to change their views upon the presentation of new evidence by Mr. Walcott. A brief summary of some of the views adopted is given below.

Dana objected to the retention of the name, thinking it would be regarded only as "a reminder of Emmons's blundering work—a succession of unstudied assumptions that brought only evil to the science." S. W. Ford favored the adoption of the name Taconic for the middle portion of the Cambrian, as the term was then used, or that marked by the presence of the fossil *Olenellus*. Hall felt that it might be well to retain the name for those rocks lying below the Potsdam, while C. H. Hitchcock considered the lowest Taconic as of lower Potsdam age.

Newberry, on the other hand, would retain the name Taconic as a group name for one of the minor subdivisions of the Upper Cambrian, while Alexander Winchell, from a perusal of the literature only, would retain the name for those rocks underlying the Cambrian and retaining the primordial fauna (*Paradoxides*). The Canadian geologists, Dawson and Selwyn, both regarded the term as useless and unnecessary, while H. S. Williams and Joseph Le Conte recommended that it be dropped entirely, owing to the existing conflict of opinion.

The committee recommended that all the strata lying between the Devonian and Archean be divided into three great groups, the Silurian, Cambrian, and Taconic, the last named to be subdivided as below:

TACONIC.

Faunal (systematic) designations.		Rock masses of New York and New England. Stratigraphic designations.
Taconic-Primordial or First Fauna.	Sub-Faunas.	
	St. Croix.	Lower portion of the Calciferous sand rock of New York. The St. Croix beds (so-called western Potsdam) of the Mississippi Valley.
	Taconic.	The Georgia group. The Taconic black slate and granular quartz.
	Acadian.	Paradoxides beds of Braintree, Massachusetts, and St. John's group of New Brunswick.

As above noted, this report of the committee was not adopted, and it is probably due more to the work of Dana and Walcott than to all others that the term to-day finds no place except historically in American geology.

As to the justice of this decision, there may be some question, particularly when one recalls the fact that Mr. Walcott's own studies later showed the existence of his *Olenellus* (Georgian) fauna *below* rather than above the *Paradoxides* (Acadian) beds.

When one considers further the condition of the science at the time Emmons first proposed the system and the conditions under which he labored, without satisfactory maps, it is obviously unfair to hold him to as strict an account as would be justifiable with reference to the later workers. Even were it true, as stated, that there is to-day "*no known stratum of rock in the Taconic range*" that is of the geological age assigned it by Doctor Emmons,[a] and even though it were also true

[a] Emmons's granular quartz and the lower part of the Stockbridge limestone are to-day regarded as older than the Potsdam, as a part of the Lower Cambrian.

that "all his reasons for calling the Hudson terrane *Taconic* were based on errors of stratigraphy, and it was only a fortunate happening that any portion of the upper Taconic rocks occur where he placed them in his stratigraphic scheme," still there would, to the unprejudiced, seem to be abundant room for the recognition of the name, a fact which Mr. Walcott has himself recognized by the adoption of the borrowed term Ordovician. Moreover, ruling out the term on the ground of blundering is scarcely just, since, as Winchell pertinently remarks, a similar ruling would take from Columbus the credit of having discovered America, since he blundered upon it, expecting to strike India.

The following tables illustrate the three principal stages of the Taconic controversy up to 1903, in the columns to the left the subdivisions of Emmons being given, and in those to the right the equivalents as recognized by Dana and other authorities.

Taconic of 1842.	Equivalents of 1888.	Equivalents of 1903.
6. Stockbridge limestone	II. Lower Silurian	Upper part Lower Silurian. Lower part Lower Cambrian.
5. *a.* Magnesian slate of Greylock, perhaps a repetition of No. 3.	III. Hudson slates	Lower Silurian.
5. *b.* Granular quartz	I. Cambrian	Lower Cambrian.
4. Limestone	II. Lower Silurian	Lower Cambrian.
3. Magnesian slate of Taconic Mountains.	III. Hudson slates	Lower Silurian.
2. Sparry limestone	II. Lower Silurian	Upper part Lower Silurian; lower part Lower Cambrian.
1. Taconic slate	III and I. Hudson slates and Cambrian.	Lower Silurian.
Taconic of 1844.		
5. *a.* Bald Mountain black slate.	I. Cambrian	Lower Cambrian.
5. *b.* Taconic slate	III and I. Hudson slates and Cambrian.	Lower Silurian.
4. Sparry limestone	II. Lower Silurian	Upper part Lower Silurian; lower part Lower Cambrian.
3. Magnesian slate	III. Hudson slates	Lower Silurian.
2. Stockbridge limestone	II. Lower Silurian	Upper part Lower Silurian; lower part Lower Cambrian.
1. Granular quartz	I. Cambrian	Lower Cambrian.
Taconic of 1855.		
Upper Taconic. 2. Bald Mountain black slate.	I. Cambrian	Lower Cambrian.
Upper Taconic. 1. Taconic slate	III and I. Hudson slates and Cambrian.	Lower Silurian.
Lower Taconic. 3. Magnesian slate	III. Hudson slates	Lower Silurian.
Lower Taconic. 2. Stockbridge limestone.	II. Lower Silurian	Upper part Lower Silurian; lower part Lower Cambrian.
Lower Taconic. 1. Granular quartz	I. Cambrian	Lower Cambrian.

APPENDIX A.

TABLES SHOWING THE GRADUAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE GEOLOGICAL COLUMN, AS GIVEN IN THE PRINCIPAL TEXT-BOOKS.

Development of Geological Column.

Maclure, 1817. (Wernerian.)		Eaton, 1820.	
Class IV. Alluvial rocks	1. Peat. 2. Sand and gravel. 3. Loam. 4. Bog iron ore. 5. Nagel-fluh. 6. Calc tuff. 7. Calc sinter.	V. Alluvial class	18. Alluvian. 17. Geest.
Class III. Floetz or secondary rocks	12. Newest floetz trap formation. 11. Independent coal formation. 10. Floetz trap formation. 9. Chalk formation. 8. Rock salt formation. 7. Third floetz sandstone. 6. Second floetz sandstone. 5. Second floetz gypsum. 4. Second or variegated sandstone. 3. First or oldest floetz gypsum. 2. First or oldest floetz limestone. 1. Old Red Sandstone or first sandstone formation.	IV. Superincumbent class.	16. Greenstone trap. 15. Basalt.
		III. Secondary class.	14. Secondary sandstone. 13. Gypsum. 12. Compact limestone. 11. Breccia.
Class II. Transition rocks	5. Transition gypsum. 4. Transition flinty slate. 3. Graywacke. 2. Transition trap. 1. Transition limestone.	II. Transition class.	10. Redsandstone. 9. Graywacke. 8. Metalliferous limestone. 7. Argillite.
Class I. Primitive rocks	14. White limestone. 13. Primitive gypsum. 12. Primitive flint. 11. Quartz rock. 10. Topaz rock. 9. Syenite. 8. Porphyry. 7. Serpentine. 6. Primitive trap. 5. Primitive limestone. 4. Clay slate. 3. Mica slate. 2. Gneiss. 1. Granite.	I. Primitive class.	6. Granular limestone. 5. Talcose rock. 4. Mica slate. 3. Hornblende rock. 2. Gneiss. 1. Granite.
			The position of the volcanic productions was problematical, but it was thought they might belong to the superincumbent class.

Development of Geological Column—Continued.

Conybeare and Phillips, 1822. (English.)			Eaton, 1830.	
Superior order	Alluvial, diluvial.		Anomalous deposits	IV. Analluvian.
	Regular strata above the chalk, including upper marine (Suffolk crag, Bagshot sands) fresh-water formations.			III. Post-Diluvion.
				II. Diluvion.
	London clays, plastic clays, and sands.			I. Volcanic.
Supermedial order.	Chalk.		Class V. Tertiary or fifth series.	23. Shell marl.
	Chalk marl.			22. Marine sand and crag.
	Greensand.			21. Marly clay.
	Weald clay.			20. Plastic clay.
	Upper Oolite division.	Purbeck beds.	Class IV. Upper Secondary or fourth series.	19. Oolitic rocks.
		Portland oolite.		18. Third graywacke.
		Kimmeridge clay.		
	Middle Oolite division.	Coral rag.		
		Oxford crag.		
	Lower Oolite division.	Cornbrash.	Class III. Lower Secondary or third series.	17. Corniferous limestone.
		Stonefield slate.		16. Geodiferous limestone.
		Forest marble.		15. Lias.
		Great Oolite.		14. Ferriferous rock.
	Lias.			13. Saliferous rock.
	New Red Sandstone.			12. Second graywacke.
	Magnesian limestone.			
Medial or carboniferous order.	Coal Measures.		Class II. Transition or second series.	11. Metalliferous limerock.
	Millstone grit and shale.			10. Calciferous sand rock.
	Carboniferous or Mountain limestone.			9. Sparry lime rock.
				8. First graywacke.
	Old Red Sandstone.			7. Argillite.
			Class I. Primitive or first series.	6. Granular limestone.
				5. Granular quartz.
				4. Talcose slate.
				3. Hornblende rock.
				2. Mica slate.
				1. Granite.

Development of Geological Column—Continued.

De La Beche, 1832.				Lyell, 1837.		
Stratified rocks.	Superior stratified or fossiliferous.	1. Modern group	Detritus such as is produced by causes now in action, as coral islands, travertine, etc.	I. Recent period.	A	Consolidated sands and gravels. Delta formations, etc.
		2. Erratic block group.	Transported bowlders and blocks; gravel on hills and plains apparently produced by greater forces than those now in action.			
		3. Superior Cretaceous group.	Various deposits above the chalk, such as the Crag, Isle of Wight beds, London plastic clay, etc.	II. Tertiary period.	B. Newer Miocene.	Marine and freshwater sands, clays, limestones, etc.
					C. Older Pliocene.	Subappenine marl, English crag, marine and fresh water.
					D. Miocene	Faluns of Loire, etc. Marine and fresh water.
		4. Cretaceous group.	1. Chalk. 2. Upper Greensand. 3. Gault. 4. Lower Greensand.		E. Eocene	Calcaire Grossier, etc., London clays, sands, etc., marine and fresh water.
			1. Weald clay. 2. Hastings sands. 3. Purbeck beds.			
		5. Oolitic group.	Oolite and Lias.			
		6. Red Sandstone group.	1. Variegated or red marl. 2. Muschelkalk. 3. Red sandstone. 4. Zechstein. 5. Red conglomerate.	III. Secondary period.	F. Cretaceous group.	1. Maestricht beds. 2. Chalk with flints. 3. Chalk without flints. 4. Upper Greensand. 5. Gault. 6. Lower Greensand.
		7. Carboniferous group.	1. Coal Measures. 2. Carboniferous limestone. 3. Old Red Sandstone.		G. Wealden group.	1. Weald clay. 2. Hastings sands. 3. Purbeck beds.
		8. Graywacke group.	Graywacke, graywacke limestone, graywacke clay slate, etc.		H. Oolitic or Jura limestone group.	1. Portland beds. 2. Kimmeridge clays. 3. Coral rag. 4. Oxford clay. 5. Cornbrash. 6. Forest marble. 7. Great Oolite. 8. Fuller's earth. 9. Inferior Oolite.
		9. Lowest Fossiliferous group.	Various slates, frequently mixed with stratified compounds resembling those of unstratified rocks.		I. Lias group	Lias.
	Inferior stratified; non-fossiliferous.	No determinate order of superposition.	Various schistose rocks and crystalline stratified compounds in gneiss, protogene, etc.		K. New Red sandstone group.	1. Keuper. 2. Muschelkalk. 3. Bunter sandstone.
Unstratified rocks.		Volcanic, trappean, serpentinous, and granitic rocks.	Ancient and modern lava, trachyte, basalt, greenstone, corneans, augite, and hornblende porphyries, serpentine, diallage rock, sienite, quartziferous poryhyry, granite, etc.		L. Magnesian limestone group.	1. Magnesian limestone and Zechstein of Germany. 2. Red conglomerate.
					M. Carboniferous group.	1. Coal Measures. 2. Mountain limestone.
					N. Old Red Sandstone group.	1. Old Red Sandstone.
				IV. Transition period.	O. Silurian group.	1. Ludlow beds. 2. Wenlock limestone. 3. Caradoc sandstone. 4. Llandeilo flags.
					P	Rocks older than the Silurian, graywacke, etc.
					Primary rocks.	

Development of Geological Column—Continued.

New York State survey, 1841–1843.			Ansted, 1844.		
VIII. Quaternary system.					
VII. Tertiary system.			Tertiary period	Superficial or Pleistocene deposits.	Diluvium and alluvium.
				Newer Tertiary or Pliocene.	Till.
				Middle Tertiary or Miocene.	Red crag or coralline crag.
				Older Tertiary or Eocene.	Bagshot sand.
					London clay.
VI. New Red Sandstone.					
V. Carboniferous system.					
IV. Old Red Sandstone.					
III. New York system.	Erie division	28. Chemung group.	Newer secondary period.	Cretaceous system.	Upper chalk.
		27. Portage group.			Lower chalk.
		26. Genesee group.			Chalk marl.
		25. Tully limestone.			Upper Greensand.
		24. Hamilton group.			Gault.
		23. Marcellus shale.			Lower Greensand.
	Helderberg division.	22. Corniferous limestone.	Middle secondary period.	Wealden formation.	Wealden clay.
		21. Onondaga limestone.			Hastings sand.
		20. Schoharie grit.			Purbeck beds.
		19. Cauda galli grit.		Upper Oolitic system.	Portland stone.
		18. Oriskany sandstone.			Portland sand.
		17. Upper Pentamerous limestone.			Kimmeridge clay.
		16. Encrinal limestone.		Middle Oolitic system.	Upper calc grit.
		15. Delthyris shaly limestone.			Coral rag.
		14. Pentamerous limestone.			Lower calc grit.
		13. Waterlime group.			Oxford clay.
		12. Onondaga salt group.			Kelloway rock.
	Ontario division.	11. Niagara group.		Lower Oolite	Cornbrash.
		10. Clinton group.			Forest marble.
		9. Medina sandstone.			Great Oolite.
	Champlain division.	8. Oneida, or Shawangunk conglomerate.			Stonesfield slate.
		7. Gray sandstone.			Inferior Oolite.
		6. Hudson River group.			Calcareous sand.
		5. Utica slate.		Liassic group	Upper Lias shale.
		4. Trenton limestone.			Lower Lias shale.
		3. Black River limestone.			Lower Lias limestone.
		2. Calciferous sandstone.	Older secondary period.	Upper New Red Sandstone or Triassic system.	Keuper.
		1. Potsdam sandstone.			Muschelkalk.
					Bunter sandstein.
			Newer Paleozoic system.	Magnesian limestone or Permian system.	Magnesian limestone.
					Lower New Red Sandstone.
				Carboniferous system.	Upper coal grit.
					Coal Measures.
					Millstone grit.
					Carboniferous limestone.
					Lower Carboniferous shales.
			Middle Paleozoic system.	Devonian system or Old Red Sandstone.	Slates and limestones of Devonshire, conglomerates, cornstone, and tilestone.
			Older Paleozoic system.	Upper Silurian rocks.	Ludlow and Wenlock series, and Upper Cambrian and Cambrian rocks.
				Lower Silurian rocks.	Caradoc sandstone and Llandeilo flags, Older Cambrian and Cambrian fossiliferous shales.
II. Taconic system.					
I. Primary or Hypogene system.					

Development of Geological Column—Continued.

De La Beche, 1851.			Lyell, 1855.		
Tertiary or Cainozoic.	A. Upper Tertiary	*a.* Mineral accumulations of the present time.	Post Tertiary		1. Recent.
		b. Pleistocene.			2. Post Pliocene.
		c. Pliocene.	Tertiary or Cainozoic.	Pliocene	3. Newer Pliocene.
	B. Middle Tertiary.	*a.* Miocene.			4. Older Pliocene.
	C. Lower Tertiary.	*a.* Eocene.		Miocene	5. Miocene.
Secondary or Mesozoic.	A. Cretaceous group.	*a.* Chalk or Maestricht of Denmark.		Eocene	6. Upper Eocene.
		b. Ordinary chalk, with or without flints.			7. Middle Eocene.
		c. Merstham beds, or Upper Greensand.			8. Lower Eocene.
		d. Gault.	Secondary or Mesozoic.	Cretaceous	9. Maestricht beds.
		e. Shanklin sands, Neocomian, or Lower Greensand.			10. Upper white chalk
					11. Lower white chalk
					12. Upper Greensand.
					13. Gault.
					14. Lower Greensand.
	B. Marine equivalents of Cretaceous group.	*a.* Wealden.			15. Wealden.
		b. Hastings sands.			16. Purbeck beds.
		c. Purbeck beds.			17. Portland stone.
	C. Jurassic or Oolitic group.	*a.* Portland or Oolitic limestone.			18. Kimmeridge clay.
		b. Portland sands.			19. Coral rag.
		c. Kimmeridge clay.		Jurassic	20. Oxford clay.
		d. Coral rag.			21. Great or Bath Oolite.
		e. Oxford clay.			22. Inferior Oolite.
		f. Cornbrash.			23. Lias.
		g. Forest marble.			24. Upper Trias.
		h. Fuller's earth.		Triassic	25. Middle Trias or Muschelkalk.
		i. Inferior Oolite.			26. Lower Trias.
		k. Lias (Upper and Lower).			
	D. Trias group	*a.* Variegated marls.			
		b. Muschelkalk.			
		c. Red Sandstone (Bunter, etc.).			
Primary or Paleozoic.	A. Permian group	*a.* Zechstein.	Primary or Paleozoic.	Permian	27. Permian or magnesian limestone.
		b. Rothe todte liegende.		Carboniferous	28. Coal Measures.
	B. Marine equivalents of.	*a.* Coal Measures.			29. Carboniferous limestone.
	C. Carboniferous limestone group.	*a.* Carboniferous and Mountain limestone, etc.		Devonian	30. Upper Devonian.
		b. Carboniferous slates.			31. Lower Devonian.
	D. Devonian group.	*a.* Various modifications of Old Red Sandstones.		Silurian	32. Upper Silurian.
					33. Lower Silurian.
	E. Silurian group	*a.* Upper.		Cambrian	34. Upper Cambrian.
		b. Middle.			35. Lower Cambrian.
		c. Lower.			
	F. Cambrian	Various rocks subjacent to the Silurian series in Wales and Ireland and above the mica and chlorite slates, etc.			

Development of Geological Column—Continued.

Phillips, 1855.			Dana, 1862.			
			Age of Man.			
Tertiary or Cainozoic series.		Post-Glacial. Glacial. Pre-Glacial. Crag. Fluvio-Marine. London clay. Plastic clay.		Post-Tertiary		Pleistocene or Post-Tertiary.
				Tertiary		Pliocene. Miocene. Eocene.
Secondary or Mesozoic series.	U. Mesozoic.	Chalk. Greensand.	Reptilian age.	Cretaceous.		Upper Cretaceous. Middle Cretaceous. Lower Cretaceous.
					Wealden	Wealden.
	L. Mesozoic.	Wealden. Upper Oolite. Middle Oolite. Lower Oolite. Lias. Poikilitic series.		Jurassic.	Oolitic epoch	Upper Oolitic. — Purbeck, Portland, and Kimmeridge clays. Middle Oolitic. — Coral rag. Oxford clay. Lower Oolitic. — Stonefield. Inferior Oolite.
					Liassic epoch	Upper Lias. Middle Lias. Lower Lias.
Primary or Paleozoic series.	U. Paleozoic.	Permian. Coal series. Mountain limestone.		Triassic.		Keuper. Muschelkalk. Buntersandstone.
	M. Paleozoic.	Old Red, or Devonian series.	Carboniferous age.		Permian	15 Permian.
	L. Paleozoic.	Ludlow. Wenlock. Caradoc. Llandeilo. Festiniog. Bangor.			Carboniferous	14c Upper Coal Measures. 14b Lower Coal Measures. 14a Millstone grit.
					Subcarboniferous	13b Upper. 13a Lower.
Hypozoic series.			Devonian age, or Age of Fishes.		Catskill	12
					Chemung	11b Chemung. 11a Portage.
					Hamilton	10c Genesee. 10b Hamilton. 10a Marcellus.
					Upper Helderberg	9c Upper Helderberg. 9b Schoharie. 9a Cauda-galli.
					Oriskany	8 Oriskany.
Mica schist, including chlorite schist, talc schist, quartz rock, granular limestone, etc. Gneiss, including limestone, hornblende schist, etc. Granitic rocks which are not stratified usually form the basis of the strata, and are frequently, but not by any means universally, followed by the gneiss and mica slate.			Silurian, or Age of Mollusks.	Upper Silurian.	Lower Helderburg	7 Lower Helderberg.
					Salina	6 Saliferous.
					Niagara	5d Niagara. 5c Clinton. 5b Medina. 5a Oneida.
				Lower Silurian.	Hudson	4b Hudson River. 4a Utica.
					Trenton	3b Trenton. Black River. Birdseye. 3a Chazy.
					Potsdam	2b Calciferous. 2a Potsdam.
					Azoic	1 Azoic.

Development of Geological Column—Continued.

Dana, 1875–1879.

Age of Man, or Quaternary.		Post-Tertiary		Pleistocene or Post-Tertiary
		Tertiary		Pliocene. Miocene. Eocene.
Reptilian age.	Cretaceous.			Upper Cretaceous. Middle Cretaceous. Lower Cretaceous.
		Wealden		Wealden.
	Jurassic.	Oolitic epoch		Upper Oolite. Purbeck, Portland, and Kimmeridge clays. Middle Oolite. Coral rag. Oxford clay. Lower Oolite. Stonesfield. Inferior Oolite.
		Liassic epoch		Upper Lias. Middle Lias. Lower Lias.
	Triassic.			Keuper. Muschelkalk. Buntersandstone.
Carboniferous age.		Permian	15	Permian.
		Carboniferous	14*c*	Upper Coal Measures.
			14*b*	Lower Coal Measures.
			14*a*	Millstone grit.
		Subcarboniferous	13*b*	Upper.
			13*a*	Lower.
Devonian, or Age of Fishes.		Catskill	12	
		Chemung	11*b*	Chemung.
			11*a*	Portage.
		Hamilton	10*c*	Genesee.
			10*b*	Hamilton.
			10*a*	Marcellus.
		Corniferous	9*c*	Corniferous.
			9*b*	Schoharie.
			9*a*	Cauda-galli.
Silurian, or Age of Invertebrates.	Upper Silurian.	Oriskany	8	Oriskany.
		Lower Helderberg	7	Lower Helderberg.
		Salina	6	Salina.
		Niagara	5*c*	Niagara.
			5*b*	Clinton.
			5*a*	Medina.
	Lower Silurian.	Trenton	4*c*	Cincinnati.
			4*b*	Utica.
			4*a*	Trenton.
		Canadian	3*c*	Chazy.
			3*b*	Quebec.
			3*a*	Calciferous.
		Primordial or Cambrian	2*b*	Potsdam.
			2*a*	Acadian.
Archean			1	Archean.

Development of Geological Column—Continued.

Dana, 1895.

Cenozoic time.	Mammalian era.	Quaternary			Recent. Champlain. Glacial.
		Tertiary			Pliocene. Miocene. Eocene. — Neocene.
Mesozoic time.	Cretaceous.	Upper Cretaceous			Upper Cretaceous.
		Lower Cretaceous			Lower Cretaceous.
	Jurassic.	Upper, or Portlandian epoch			Upper Oolite.
		Middle, or Oolitic epoch			Middle Oolite. Lower Oolite.
		Lower, or Liassic epoch			Upper Lias. Marlstone. Lower Lias.
	Triassic.	Upper			Keuper.
		Middle			Muschelkalk.
		Lower			Buntersandstein.
Paleozoic time. — Neopaleozoic section.	Carbonic era.	Permian		14	Permian.
		Carboniferous		13c	Upper Coal Measures.
				13b	Lower Coal Measures.
				13a	Millstone grit.
		Subcarboniferous		12b	Upper, or Mauch Chunk.
				12a	Lower, or Pocono.
	Devonian era.	Upper Devonian		11b	Chemung and Catskill.
				11a	Portage, Genesee.
		Middle Devonian or Hamilton		10b	Hamilton.
				10a	Marcellus.
		Corniferous		9b	Corniferous.
				9a	Schoharie and Cauda-galli.
		Oriskany		8	Oriskany.
	Upper Silurian era.	Lower Helderberg		7	Lower Helderberg.
		Onondaga		6	Salina and waterlime.
		Niagara		5c	Niagara.
				5b	Clinton.
				5a	Medina.
Eopaleozoic section.	Lower Silurian era.	Trenton		4c	Hudson.
				4b	Utica.
				4a	Trenton.
		Canadian		3c	Chazy.
				3a	Calciferous.
	Cambrian era.	Upper		2c	Potsdam.
		Middle		2b	Acadian.
		Lower		2a	Georgian.
Archean					Huronian. Laurentian.

APPENDIX B.

BRIEF BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF THE PRINCIPAL WORKERS IN AMERICAN GEOLOGY.

Appendix B.

BRIEF BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF THE PRINCIPAL WORKERS IN AMERICAN GEOLOGY.

Adams, Charles Baker. Conchologist and geologist.

Born in Dorchester, Mass., January 11, 1814; died in St. Thomas, West Indies, January 18, 1853. Graduated at Amherst in 1834, and took up study of theology at Andover, leaving there to join E. Hitchcock on geological survey of New York. Professor of chemistry and natural history in Middlebury College, Vermont, 1838–1847. State geologist of Vermont, 1845–1848. In 1847 accepted professorship of zoology and astronomy at Amherst. Failing health took him to West Indies, where he died. Assisted greatly in making known the mollusk-fauna of Panama and West Indies.

Biogr. Wm. H. Dall. Some American Conchologists, Proc. Biolog. Soc. of Washn., IV, 1886–88, pp. 112–116.
H. M. Seeley, Amer. Geol., XXXII, No. 1, July, 1903, pp. 1–12.
Thos. Bland, Amer. Jour. of Conchology, I, pp. 191–204. 1865.

Agassiz, Jean Louis Rodolphe. Zoologist and glacialist.

Born in Motier, Switzerland, May 28, 1807; died in Cambridge, Mass., December 14, 1873. In 1832, professor in the Academy of Neuchatel. In 1846, came to United States and in 1847, appointed professor of zoology and geology in Harvard University. In 1851, professor of comparative anatomy in Charleston, S. C. In 1859, founded in Cambridge the Museum of Comparative Zoology. Best known as a lecturer, teacher, and authority on fossil fishes, and as the father of the glacial theory. His Études sur les Glaciers appeared in 1840 and his Glacial System in 1847.

Biogr. Life and Correspondence, by Elizabeth C. Agassiz, Boston, 1886.
Biogr. Life and Letters of Louis Agassiz, by Jules Marcou, Boston, 1895.
Memoir of Louis Agassiz, by Arnold Guyot. Biog. Mems. Nat. Acad. Sci., II, 1886.
Richard Bliss, Pop. Sci. Monthly, IV, March, 1874, pp. 608–618.

Akerly, Samuel. Physician.

Born ———, 1785; died on Staten Island, New York, July 6, 1845. Graduated from Columbia College, 1804. Wrote mainly on medical subjects. His principal geological publication was an essay on the geology of the Hudson River.

Aldrich, Truman Heminway.

Born in Palmyra, N. Y., October 17, 1848. Graduated at the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, N. Y., as a mining and civil engineer, in 1869. Assistant engineer on various railroad surveys and public works in New Jersey till 1871, when he moved to Alabama and became interested in coal mining. His publications are mainly on coal and recent shells and Tertiary fossils.

Alger, Francis.

Born in Bridgewater, Mass., March 8, 1807; died in Washington, D. C., November 27, 1863. In 1826–27, made collecting trips into Nova Scotia, and in 1828–29, explored in the same Province with C. T. Jackson. In 1844, published an edition of Phillips's Mineralogy.

ANDREWS, EBENEZER BALDWIN. Theologian and geologist.

Born in Danbury, Conn., April 29, 1821; died in Lancaster, Ohio, August 14, 1880. Graduated from Marietta College in 1842. In 1851–1869, professor of geology in Marietta College, and then became assistant geologist to the Ohio State survey. Author of Text-book on Elementary Geology, Cincinnati, 1878.

ANTISELL, THOMAS, Physician and chemist.

Born in Dublin, Ireland, January 16, 1817; died in Washington, D. C., June 14, 1893. By profession a chemist and surgeon. Came to America in 1848 and practiced medicine in New York for six years, at same time lecturing in colleges in Woodstock, Vt., Pittsfield, Mass., and Berkshire Medical Institute. In 1854–1856, served as geologist on Pacific Railroad Survey under Lieut. J. G. Parke. In 1861–1865, surgeon in Union Army. In 1866–1870, chief chemist in Department of Agriculture. In 1871–1877, in Japan in service of Imperial Government as chemist and technologist.

Biogr. Wm. H. Seamans, Philos. Soc. of Washn., Bull. XIII, pp. 367–434.
Yearbook of Agr. Dept., 1899, p. 238.

ASHBURNER, CHARLES ALBERT. Mining engineer.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., February 9, 1854; died in Pittsburg, Pa., December 24, 1889. Economic geologist with especial reference to petroleum, gas, coal, and iron. Trained as a civil engineer, but soon abandoned the calling for that of geologist. Geologist to second geological survey of Pennsylvania, 1873–1886.

Biogr. Amer. Geologist, VI, August, 1890, pp. 69–78.

BARNES, DANIEL HENRY. Baptist clergyman and educator.

Born in Canaan, Columbia County, N. Y., April 25, 1785; killed in runaway accident in Troy, N. Y., October 27, 1828. Graduated in theology from Union College in 1809 and in 1816, became principal of the classical department of that institution. In 1819, made professor of languages in the Baptist Theological Seminary, New York City. Rendered valuable service on original edition of Webster's Dictionary. Published but one purely geological paper—a geological section of the Canaan Mountains.

Biogr. Am. Jour. Sci., XV, 1829, p. 401.

BARRIS, WILLIS HERVEY. Clergyman.

Born in Beaver County, Pa., July 9, 1821; died in Davenport, Iowa, June 10, 1901. Clergyman and teacher, interested in the sciences, particularly in geology. One of the founders of the Davenport Academy of Sciences. Published three brief papers on the local geology of Davenport.

Biogr. C. A. White. Annals of Iowa, October, 1901, p. 219.

BECK, LEWIS CALEB. Chemist.

Born in Schenectady, N. Y., October 4, 1798; died in Albany, N. Y., April 20, 1853. At time of death held the professorships of chemistry and natural history at Rutgers College, New Jersey, and of chemistry in Albany Medical College.

Am. Jour. Sc., XVI, 1853, pp. 149–150.

BIGSBY, JOHN J. Physician.

A British medical officer. Wrote principally on Canadian geology.

BILLINGS, ELKANAH. Paleontologist.

Born in Gloucester, Canada, May 5, 1820; died in Montreal, Canada, June 14, 1876. Educated as a lawyer. In 1852–1855, editor of the Citizen, at Renfrew, Canada. In 1856 established the Canadian Naturalist. From 1856 to time of his death paleontologist to the provincial government.

Biogr. Henry M. Ami. Amer. Geologist, XXVII, No. 5, 1901, pp. 265–281.

BINNEY, AMOS. Conchologist.

Born in Boston, Mass., October 18, 1803; died in Rome, Italy, February 18, 1847. Graduated from Brown University in 1821.

BLAKE, WILLIAM PHIPPS. Geologist.

Born in New York, June 1, 1826. Graduated from Yale Scientific School in 1852. Geologist and mineralogist for U. S. Pacific Railroad Expedition in 1853. Became professor of mineralogy and geology, College of California, 1864; now director of School of Mines, University of Arizona, and Territorial geologist.

BOOTH, JAMES CURTIS. Chemist.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 28, 1810; died in West Haverford, Pa., March 21, 1888. Professor of applied chemistry, Franklin Institute. In 1849 appointed superintendent of smelting and refining precious metals in United States Mint. Assistant on geological survey of Pennsylvania and State geologist of Delaware, 1839–1841.

Lamb's Biog. Dict. of United States.

BRADLEY, FRANK HOWE. Geologist.

Born in New Haven, Conn., September 20, 1838; died near Nacoochee, Ga., March 27, 1879. In 1867, assistant geologist, State survey of Illinois. In 1869–1875, professor of geology and mineralogy in the University of Tennessee. During summer of 1872, assistant geologist in the Hayden surveys. After 1875 engaged in private work. Killed by a cave-in in a gold mine.

Am. Jour. Sci., XVII, 1879, p. 415.

BRAMBY, R. S.

Born in Statesburg, S. C., August 4, 1804; died near Athens, Ga., October 6, 1871. Received a classical education and became first a lawyer, then a newspaper editor. From 1834 to 1849, professor of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology in the University of Alabama. In the latter year elected to a similar position in South Carolina College in Columbia, S. C., where he remained until 1856.

BRANNER, JOHN CASPER. Geologist.

Born in Newmarket, Tenn., July 4, 1850. Graduated from Cornell, 1874. Geologist on Imperial Geological Commission, Brazil, 1875–1877; topographical geologist, geological survey of Pennsylvania, 1883–1885; professor of geology, University of Indiana, 1885–1892; State geologist of Arkansas, 1887–1892. Professor of geology, Leland Stanford Junior University, since 1892.

BREWER, WILLIAM HENRY. Chemist and geologist.

Born in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., September 14, 1828. Graduated from Yale in 1852; studied at Heidelberg, Munich, and Paris. Professor of chemistry and geology, Washington College, Pennsylvania, 1858–1860; first assistant on geological survey of California, 1860–1864; professor of chemistry, University of California, 1863–64. Professor of agriculture at Yale since 1864.

BRIGGS, CALEB.

Born in North Rochester, Mass., May 24, 1812; died in North Rochester, Mass., September 28, 1884. Assistant on geological survey of Ohio under Mather, 1837, and on geological survey of Virginia under Rogers in 1839. Worked principally in the coal and iron formations.

Biogr. Chas. Whittlesey. Mag. of Western History, II, 1885.

BROADHEAD, GARLAND CARR. Geologist.

Born in Albemarle County, Va., October 30, 1827. Civil engineer, Pacific Railroad of Missouri, 1852–1857; assistant geologist of Missouri, 1857–1861 and 1871–1873; State geologist of Missouri, 1873–1875; assistant geologist of Illinois, 1868; professor of geology, University of Missouri, 1887–1897.

BROOKS, THOMAS BENTON. Geologist.

Born in Monroe, N. Y., June 15, 1836; died in Newburgh, N. Y., November 22, 1900. Began life as a land surveyor. In 1865, engaged on general survey of New Jersey. In 1866–1869, vice-president and general manager of Iron Cliff mine in the Marquette district of Michigan. In 1869–1873, connected with State survey of Michigan.

Biogr. Bailey Willis. Science, Mar. 22, 1901.

BRUCE, ARCHIBALD. Physician and mineralogist.

Born in New York City in February, 1777; died in New York, February 22, 1818. During a two years' tour of Europe he collected a valuable mineralogical cabinet, and returned to the United States in 1803, to enter on the practice of medicine. Assisted in organization of College of Physicians and Surgeons of State of New York. Established Journal of American Mineralogy. Professor of materia medica and mineralogy in College of Physicians of New York and Rutger's College, New Jersey.

Biogr. Am. Jour. Sci., I, 1819, pp. 299-304.

BUCKLEY, SAMUEL BOTSFORD. Botanist.

Born near Penn Yan, in Yates County, New York, May 9, 1809; died in Austin, Tex., February 18, 1884. Graduate of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., 1836. Taught botany in Illinois, Alabama, and other Southern States. Discovered zeuglodon skeleton in Clarke County, Ala., in 1841. In 1866–67, State geologist of Texas.

Bull. Torrey Botanical Club, XI.

CHAMBERLIN, THOMAS CROWDER. Geologist.

Born in Mattoon, Ill., September 25, 1843. Graduate of Beloit, 1866. Professor of natural science, State normal school, Whitewater, Wis., 1869–1873; professor of geology, Beloit, 1882–1887; president of University of Wisconsin, 1887–1892. Assistant State geologist Wisconsin, 1873–1876; chief geologist Wisconsin, 1876; United States geologist in charge of glacial division since 1882; geologist of Peary Relief Expedition, 1894. Since 1892 head professor of geology, University of Chicago.

CHANCE, HENRY MARTYN. Mining engineer and geologist.

Born in Philadelphia, January 18, 1856. Graduated from University of Pennsylvania, 1874. Assistant geologist, Pennsylvania geological survey, 1874–1884.

CHURCH, JOHN ADAMS. Metallurgist and mining engineer.

Born in Rochester, N. Y., April 5, 1843. Graduated from Columbia in 1867. Acting professor of mineralogy and metallurgy, Columbia School of Mines; editor Engineering and Mining Journal, 1872–1874; for some time connected with U. S. Geological Survey; professor mining and metallurgy, Ohio State University, 1878–1881.

CLAYPOLE, EDWARD WALLER. Geologist.

Born in Ross, Hereford, England, June 1, 1835; died in Long Beach, Cal., August 17, 1901. Came to United States in 1872 and became professor of natural science at Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio, in 1873. In 1881–1883, connected with second geological survey of Pennsylvania. In 1883, appointed professor of natural science in Buchtel College, Akron, Ohio. In 1898 to time of his death, professor of geology and biology at Throop Polytechnic Institute, Pasadena, Cal.

Biogr. Theo. B. Comstock and Geo. M. Richardson. Amer. Geol., XXIX, 1902, No. 1, pp. 1–47.
T. B. Comstock. Bull. Geol. Soc. of America, XIII, Feb., 1903, pp. 487–97.

CLEAVELAND, PARKER. Chemist and mineralogist.

Born in Essex, Mass., January 15, 1780; died in Brunswick, Me., October 16, 1858. Graduated at Harvard in 1799. In 1805, appointed professor of mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, and mineralogy in Bowdoin College, and continued to teach these branches (with exception of mathematics) until time of his death. Is best remembered as a teacher and mineralogist.

Biogr. Am. Jour. Sci., XXVI, 1858, pp. 448–9.

COLLETT, JOHN. Geologist.

Born in Eugene, Ind., January 10, 1828; died in Indianapolis, Ind., March 15, 1899. Graduated from Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Ind., in 1847. From 1869 to 1879 assistant under E. T. Cox in State survey of Indiana, and in last-named year made State geologist and statistician. 1880 appointed geologist in chief for a term of four years. At the end of his term of service he retired to private life.

CONKLING, ALFRED RONALD.

Born in New York, September 28, 1850. Graduated from Yale in 1870. For a short time connected with U. S. Geological Survey under Hayden.

CONRAD, TIMOTHY ABBOTT. Conchologist and paleontologist.

Born near Trenton, N. J., June 21, 1803; died in Trenton, N. J., August 9, 1877. By profession a printer. Geologist and paleontologist of New York State, 1827–1842. Prepared official reports on the fossils collected by the Wilkes Exploring Expedition, the expedition of Lieutenant Lynch to the Dead Sea, and the Mexican Boundary Survey. He also published an important work on the fossil shells of the Tertiary formation of North America.

Biogr. Wm. H. Dall. Proc. Biolog. Soc. of Washington, IV, 1886–88, pp. 112–114.

COOK, GEORGE HAMMELL. Geologist.

Born in Hanover, N. J., January 5, 1818; died in New Brunswick, N. J., September 22, 1889. In 1839–1842, tutor or adjunct professor and 1842–1846, senior professor at the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. In 1848–1851, connected with Albany Academy at Albany, N. Y. In 1853, professor of chemistry and natural science at Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N. J. In 1854–1856, assistant geologist of State of New Jersey. In 1864, made State geologist, a position which he continued to fill till time of his death.

Biogr. James Neilson. Address before faculty of Rutgers College, 1890.

COOPER, THOMAS. Educator.

Born in London, England, October 22, 1759; died in Columbia, S. C., May 11, 1840. Came to America in 1795 and served for brief periods as professor of chemistry and allied sciences and law in Dickinson College, University of Pennsylvania, University of Virginia, and South Carolina College, becoming president of last named in 1821 and serving until 1833.

Biogr. History of Higher Education in South Carolina by Colyer Meriweather. Bureau of Education, Washn., 1889.

COPE, EDWARD DRINKER. Paleontologist.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 28, 1840; died in Philadelphia, April 12, 1897. Vertebrate paleontologist. Professor of natural science at Haverford College, Pa., 1864–1867; connected with the U. S. Geological Surveys under Lieut. G. M. Wheeler, 1874, and Dr. F. V. Hayden. Curator of Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, 1865–1873. Professor of geology, University of Pennsylvania, 1889. For many years editor of the American Naturalist.

Biogr. P. Frazer. Amer. Geol., XXVI, Aug., 1900.

CORNELIUS, ELIAS. Clergyman.

Born in Somers, N. Y., July 31, 1794; died in Hartford, Conn., February 12, 1832. A clergyman who, in company with many others of his time, was interested in the sciences. Wrote a little, but did no active work.

Biogr. Bela Hubbard. Nat. Cyclo. Am. Biogr, 1833.

COTTING, JOHN RUGGLES. Clergyman.

Born in Acton, Mass., 1784; died in Milledgeville, Ga., October 18, 1868. A clergyman interested in science. Removed to Augusta, Ga., in 1835, and was engaged by private parties to make agricultural survey of Burke and Richmond counties. The work was completed in 1836, and map and drawings deposited in the Medical College at Augusta. Report published in 1836. State geologist of Georgia for two years.

Biogr. Am. Min. Jour., XLV, 1868. p. 141.

COUTHOUY, JOSEPH PITTY. Conchologist.

Born in Boston, Mass., January 6, 1808, of French extraction; shot on U. S. S. *Chillicothe*, off Grand Ecore, La., April 3, 1864, and died following day. In early life shipped as sailor on his father's vessel. In 1836, became member of Boston Society

of Natural History; was conchologist to Wilkes Exploring Expedition for two years. Commanded United States vessels from outbreak of rebellion until he lost his life.

Biogr. Wm. H. Dall. Some Amer. Conchologists. Proc. Biolog. Soc. of Washn., IV, 1886–88, pp. 108–111.

Cox, Edward Travers. Geologist.

Born in Culpeper County, Va., April 21, 1821. Studied geology and chemistry under D. D. Owen and served as assistant on surveys of Kentucky and Arkansas. In 1868–1880, State geologist of Indiana.

Cozzens, Issachar.

Born in Newport, R. I., December 15, 1780, died in Guttenberg, N. J., April 17, 1865. Cozzens's claim to recognition as a geologist, so far as his publications are concerned, is based upon his geological history of Manhattan or New York Island, dated 1843.

Biogr. Genl. A. W. Vogdes. Amer. Geolog., XXIV, No. 6, 1899, pp. 327–8.

Dale, Thomas Nelson. Geologist.

Born in New York City, November 25, 1845. Professor of geology, zoology, and botany, Drury College, Missouri, 1877; professor of geology, Vassar College, 1878; connected with U. S. Geological Survey since 1885—as field assistant, 1885–1889; assistant geologist, 1890–91; geologist, 1892 to date. Instructor in Williams College—in geology, 1893; botany, 1897; resigned, 1901.

Dall, William Healey. Naturalist.

Born in Boston, Mass., August 21, 1845. Studied natural sciences under Louis Agassiz. Paleontologist on U. S. Geological Survey, 1884–1898. Since 1880, attached to U. S. National Museum; since 1893, also professor invertebrate paleontology, Wagner Institute of Sciences, Philadelphia.

Dana, Edward Salisbury. Mineralogist.

Born in New Haven, Conn., November 16, 1849. Graduated from Yale University in 1870; also studied in Heidelberg and Vienna. Member of Yale faculty since 1874. Editor American Journal of Science. Author of Text-Book and System of Mineralogy.

Dana, James Dwight. Geologist.

Born in Utica, N. Y., February 12, 1813; died in New Haven, Conn., April 14, 1895. Entered Yale in 1830, but withdrew in August, 1833, to become instructor in mathematics in the Navy. In 1836, reentered Yale, remaining two years, serving as assistant to Professor Silliman. In 1838–1842, geologist and mineralogist to the Wilkes Exploring Expedition. In 1846, became editor of American Journal of Science. In 1850, appointed professor of natural history in Yale College, the title in 1864 being changed to professor of geology and mineralogy. Retained this chair until 1890, when he retired from active university work. "The foremost geologist of America and one of the foremost of the world."

Biogr. E. S. Dana. Am. Jour. Sci., XLIX, 1895, pp. 1–28.
C. E. Beecher, Am. Geol., XVII, 1896, pp. 1–16.
Joseph Le Conte. Bull. Geol. Soc. Amer., VII, 1895, pp. 461–479.
D. C. Gilman. The Life of James Dwight Dana, 1899.

Dana, Samuel Luther. Chemist.

Born in Amherst, N. H., July 11, 1795; died in Lowell, Mass., March 11, 1868. Graduated in medicine in 1818 and practiced until 1826. Chemist to the Newton Chemical Company, from about 1826–1834. Consulting chemist of Merrimac Manufacturing Company, at Lowell, Mass., 1834–1868. With his brother J. F. Dana, published a work on the mineralogy and geology of Boston and vicinity.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, pp. 692–697.
Am. Jour. Sci., XLV, 1868, p. 425.

DAWSON, GEORGE MERCER. Geologist.

Born in Pictou, Nova Scotia, August 1, 1849; died in Ottawa, Canada, March 2, 1901. Graduated at the London School of Mines in 1872, and became geologist and botanist on North American Boundary Surveys, 1873. Connected with Geological Survey of Canada from 1875 to time of his death, succeeding Selwyn as director in 1895.

Biogr. Frank D. Adams. Bull. Geol. Soc. of America, XIII, Feb., 1903, pp. 497–509.

DAWSON, JOHN WILLIAM. Stratigraphical geologist and paleobotanist.

Born in Pictou, Nova Scotia, October 13, 1820; died in Montreal, Canada, November 19, 1899. Superintendent of education in Nova Scotia, 1850. Principal of McGill University, 1855–1893. The author of many works bearing upon science and religion; his most important books being Acadian Geology, the first edition of which appeared in 1855; the Geological History of Plants; Air Breathers of the Coal Period; and the Dawn of Life. One of the most eminent advocates of the theory of the organic origin of the *Eozoon canadense*.

Biogr. Bull. Geol. Soc. Amer., XI, 1899, pp. 550–580.
H. M. Ami. Amer. Geol., XXVI, 1900, pp. 1–57.
Eng. & Min. Jour., LXVIII, No. 23, Dec. 2, 1899, p. 664.
Canadian Rec. of Sci., VIII, 1900, pp. 137–149.

DEANE, JAMES. Physician.

Born in Coleraine, Mass., February 24, 1801; died in Greenfield, Mass., June 8, 1858. Physician by profession, his claim to geological recognition being founded upon his work on fossil footprints in the sandstones of the Connecticut Valley, to the study of which, contemporaneously with Hitchcock, he devoted much attention.

DEWEY, CHESTER. Naturalist.

Born in Sheffield, Mass., October 25, 1784; died in Rochester, N. Y., December 5, 1867. Tutor in Williams College, 1808–1810. In 1810–1817, professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, also professor and lecturer on chemistry and botany in medical colleges of Pittsfield, Mass., and Woodstock, Vt., for many years. In 1836–1850, principal of the Collegiate Institute of Rochester, N. Y. In 1850–1860, professor of chemistry and natural philosophy, University of Rochester.

DUCATEL, JULIUS TIMOLEON. Chemist.

Born in Baltimore, Md., June 6, 1796; died there April 23, 1849. Professor of natural philosophy in Mechanic's Institute of Baltimore, and of chemistry and geology in faculty of arts and sciences in the University of Maryland. In 1830 succeeded Doctor Butts in the chair of chemistry in the medical department of the university. In 1835, in conjunction with J. H. Alexander, made a preliminary reconnaissance of Maryland; was appointed professor of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology in St. John's College, Annapolis, but in 1838 or 1839 resigned both appointments to devote himself to the survey work.

Obituary. Am. Jour. Sci., VIII, 1849, pp. 146–149.

DUTTON, CLARENCE EDWARD. Major in United States Army and geologist.

Born in Wallingford, Conn., May 15, 1841. Graduated from Yale in 1860. Entered United States Army in 1862, and after civil war devoted leisure to study of geology. In 1875–1891, detailed for duty with U. S. Geological Survey.

DWIGHT, WILLIAM BUCK. Geologist.

Born in Constantinople, Turkey, May 22, 1833. Graduated from Yale University, 1857. In 1865–1867, engaged in mining explorations in Virginia and Missouri. In 1867–1870, taught at West Point. In 1870–1878, professor of natural sciences at State Normal School of Connecticut; since 1878, professor of natural history, Vassar College.

EATON, AMOS. Geologist and educator.

Born in Chatham, N. Y., May 17, 1776; died in Troy, N. Y., May 6, 1842. Graduated from Williams College, 1799, and subsequently studied and practiced law. In

1815, studied mineralogy and geology with Professor Silliman. Returned to Williams College and gave course of lectures on botany, geology, and mineralogy to volunteer students. In 1820, appointed professor of natural history in Medical College at Castleton, Vt. In 1820–21, engaged on geological and agricultural survey of Albany and Rensselaer counties, N. Y. In 1823–24, on survey of district adjoining the Erie Canal. In 1824, made senior professor of school of sciences, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, where he remained till his death.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, XXXVIII, November, 1890, pp. 113–118.

EMMONS, EBENEZER. Geologist.

Born in Middlefield, Mass., May 16, 1799; died in Brunswick County, N. C., October 1, 1863. Graduated at Williams College, Massachusetts, in 1820, and for fifteen years practiced medicine and surgery in Berkshire. In 1838–1852, professor of chemistry at the Albany Medical School. In 1828, lecturer on chemistry in Williams College. In 1833, appointed professor of natural history to succeed C. Dewey. In 1836, appointed geologist of Second District New York State geological survey; from 1851 to 1863 State geologist of North Carolina. Is best remembered as the originator and defender of the Taconic system in North America.

Biogr. Jules Marcou. Amer. Geol., Jan., 1891, pp. 1–23.
Am. Jour. Sci., XXXVII, May, 1864, p. 151.
Pop. Sci. Monthly, Jan., 1896.

EMMONS, SAMUEL FRANKLIN. Geologist.

Born in Boston, Mass., March 29, 1841. Graduated from Harvard in 1861. Studied in Paris and at Freiberg Mining School, Saxony, 1862–1865. Geologist Fourtieth Parallel Survey, 1867–1877. On U. S. Geological Survey, 1879 to date.

ENDLICH, FREDERIC MILLER. Mining engineer.

Born in Reading, Pa., June 14, 1851; died in Tucson, Ariz., July 17, 1899. In 1872–1880, mineralogist and chemist at Smithsonian Institution. In 1873–1879, assistant on U. S. Geological and Geographical Surveys under F. V. Hayden. From 1880 to time of his death engaged as mining engineer in various parts of the West.

ENGELMANN, GEORGE. Naturalist.

Born in Frankfort-on-Main, Germany, February 2, 1809; died in St. Louis, Mo., February 4, 1884. Graduated at Wurzburg University in 1831. Came to America in 1832 and prepared specimens of plants for German museums. In 1835, began the practice of medicine in St. Louis. His records of meteorological observations in the Mississippi Valley are a most valuable source of information on climatology during fifty years. Voluminous writer on botany and other branches of natural history. First president of Academy of Science of St. Louis.

Biogr. Enno Sander. Trans. Acad. of Sci. St. Louis, IV, 1878–86, prelim. pages 1–13.
C. A. White. Biogr. Mems. Natl. Acad. Sci., IV., 1902, pp. 1–21.

EVANS, JOHN. Physician and geologist.

Born in Portsmouth, N. H., February 14, 1812; died in Washington, D. C., April 13, 1861. In 1847, was assistant to D. D. Owen in the Chippewa district. In 1851, appointed to institute geological researches in Oregon and Washington. Went to Central America with Chiriqui Exploring Expedition, 1860.

Biogr. Am. Jour. Sci., XXXII, Nov., 1861, p. 311.

FEATHERSTONHAUGH, GEORGE WILLIAM.

Born in London, 1780; died in Havre, France, September 28, 1866. Came to United States and in 1834, made examination of the region between the Missouri and Red Rivers. In 1835, made geological reconnaissance from Washington to St. Peters River. Appointed by Great Britain one of commission of two to settle boundary dispute between United States and Canada. British Consul at Havre, assisting in escape of Louis Phillipe in 1848.

J. D. Featherstonhaugh. Am. Geol., April, 1889.

FOSTER, JOHN WELLS.

Born in Petersham, Mass., March 4, 1815; died in Hyde Park, Chicago, Ill., June 20, 1873. Received collegiate education at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., after which he studied law and settled at Zanesville, Ohio. Was assistant to Jackson, and subsequently worked with Whitney on survey of copper lands of Lake Superior. Wrote work on Prehistoric Races of the United States and on The Mississippi Valley, Its Physical Geography, etc., in 1869.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, III, August, 1873, p. 508.

FRAZER, PERSIFOR. Geologist and chemist.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 24, 1844. Graduated from University of Pennsylvania, 1862; studied in Royal School of Mines, Freiberg, Saxony, 1866–1869. Mineralogist and metallurgist on U. S. Survey under Hayden, 1869–70. Professor of chemistry, University of Pennsylvania, 1870–1874; assistant on second geological survey of Pennsylvania, 1874–1882.

GABB, WILLIAM MORE. Paleontologist.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., January 20, 1839; died there, May 30, 1878. In 1862, paleontologist on geological survey of California under Whitney. In 1868, undertook survey in Santo Domingo for private company, and in 1873, published a memoir of topography and geology of that island. In 1873, went to Costa Rica and engaged in a geological and topographical survey.

Biogr. Amer. Jour. Sci., XVI, 1878, p. 164.

GENTH, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS. Mineralogist and chemist.

Born in Waechtersbach, in Hesse, May 17, 1820; died in Philadelphia, Pa., February 2, 1893. Took degree of Ph. D. at University of Marburg in 1845; chemical assistant to Bunsen for three years. In 1848, came to America and settled in Philadelphia. In 1872–1888, professor of chemistry in University of Pennsylvania. Best known by his studies of corundum, copper products, and ammonia-cobalt bases.

Biogr. Geo. F. Barker. Natl. Acad. Sci., Biogr. Mems., IV, 1902, pp. 203–231.

GESNER, ABRAHAM. Physician, geologist, and chemist.

Born in Cornwallis, Nova Scotia, May 2, 1797; died in Halifax, Nova Scotia, April 19, 1864. In 1838, appointed provincial geologist of New Brunswick. Aside from his geological work, he achieved distinction as inventor of method for manufacture of illuminating oil from coal and other bituminous substances.

Biogr. G. W. Gesner. Bull. XIV, Natl. Hist. Soc. of New Brunswick, 1896.

GIBBS, GEORGE.

Born in Newport, R. I., January 7, 1776; died in Sunswick, near Halletts Cove (now New York City), L. I., August 6, 1833. First vice-president of American Geological Society, founded in 1819; owner of one of the finest mineralogical cabinets of the time.

GIBBS, GEORGE. Lawyer and geologist. Son of Col. George Gibbs.

Born in Sunswick, near Halletts Cove (now New York City), L. I., July 17, 1815; died in New Haven, Conn., April 9, 1873. Graduated from Harvard University and entered upon the practice of law. In 1848, accompanied military expedition to the far West, and settled at Columbia, Oreg. Geologist to survey of railroad route to Pacific; in 1857, appointed on northwest boundary survey, submitting report on geology and natural history of the country. Secretary of Hudson Bay Claims Commission; for some time before his death connected with Smithsonian Institution upon ethnological and philological work.

Biogr. J. A. Stevens. Ann. Rept. Smith. Inst. for 1873, pp. 219–225.

GIBSON, JOHN BANNISTER. Jurist.

Born in Carlisle, Pa., November 8, 1780; died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 3, 1853. Graduated from Dickinson College in 1798 and admitted to the bar in 1803. Wrote on the trap rocks of the Conewago Hills.

GILBERT, GROVE KARL. Geologist.

Born in Rochester, N. Y., May 6, 1843. Graduated from University of Rochester, 1862. Assistant in Ward Museum, Rochester, 1863–1868; geologist on Ohio survey, 1868–1870; on Wheeler survey, 1871–1874; Powell survey, 1875–1879; geologist on U. S. Geological Survey since 1879.

GREEN, JACOB. Conchologist and paleontologist.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 26, 1790; died there February 1, 1841. Graduated from University of Pennsylvania in 1806; professor of chemistry and natural history in Princeton, 1818–1822; professor of chemistry in Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia, until his death. Wrote on chemistry, paleontology, and botany.

Biogr. Wm. H. Dall. Some Amer. Conchologists, Proc. Biolog. Soc. Washn., IV., 1886–88, p. 104.

GRINNELL, GEORGE BIRD.

Born in Brooklyn, N. Y., September 20, 1849. Graduated from Yale in 1870. Assistant in osteology in Peabody Museum, Yale, 1874–1880.

HAGER, ALBERT DAVID. Geologist.

Born in Chester, Vt., November 1, 1817; died in Chicago, Ill., July 29, 1888. In 1855–1857, assistant State naturalist of Vermont. In 1857–1861, assistant State geologist. In 1862–1870, State geologist and curator of the State cabinet of natural history. In 1870–1872, State geologist of Missouri. In 1877–1888, librarian Chicago Historical Society.

HAGUE, ARNOLD. Geologist.

Born in Boston, Mass., December 3, 1840. Graduated from Yale, 1863; studied at universities of Göttingen and Heidelberg and Freiberg School of Mines, 1863–1867. Geologist on Fortieth Parallel Survey, 1867–1877. Government geologist of Guatemala, 1877–78; engaged in examining mines in northern China, 1878–79; since 1879 a member of U. S. Geological Survey.

HAGUE, JAMES DUNCAN. Mining engineer.

Born in Boston, Mass., February 26, 1836. Educated at Harvard and Göttingen, Germany, and Royal School of Mines, Freiberg, Saxony. Exploring in South Seas, 1859–1861; manager of copper mines at Lake Superior, 1863–1866; geologist on U. S. Geological Survey fortieth parallel, 1867–1870.

HALDEMAN, SAMUEL STEHMAN. Naturalist.

Born in Locust Grove, Pa., August 12, 1812; died in Chickies, Pa., September 10, 1880. Assistant to H. D. Rogers in geological survey of New Jersey in 1836; astronomer on survey of Pennsylvania, 1837–38. In 1851–1855, professor of natural history in University of Pennsylvania; in 1855, became professor of natural history in Delaware College, Dover, Del.; in 1869–1880, professor of comparative philology in University of Pennsylvania. A very versatile man and author of some thirty works on philology and one hundred and twenty on various natural science subjects.

Biogr. J. P. Lesley. Nat. Acad. Sci., Biog. Mems., II, 1886.
Wm. H. Dall. Some Amer. Conchologists, Proc. Biolog. Soc. Washn., IV, 1886–88, pp. 112–113.

HALL, JAMES. Paleontologist.

Born in Hingham, Mass., September 12, 1811; died in Echo Hill, Bethlehem, N. H., August 7, 1898. Studied under Eaton at Rensselaer Institute, Troy, where he was subsequently assistant professor. Connected with geological survey of New York—first as assistant to Emmons; took charge of fourth district; after 1843, had charge of entire survey, in which he continued until his death, sometimes carrying on work at his own expense. Besides the New York reports he contributed to Foster and Whitney's Report on the Lake Superior Region, the Mexican Boundary Report, etc. At one time State geologist of Iowa, and afterwards of Wisconsin. In conjunction with R. P. Whitfield he published important memoirs on paleontology of Ohio, Kentucky, and the Fortieth Parallel.

Biogr. John J. Stevenson. Bull. Geol. Soc. of America, X, 1898, pp. 425–451.
Geol. Mag., Dec. IV, V, 1898, p. 431.

HALL, JAMES. Clergyman.

Born in Carlisle, Pa., August 22, 1744; died in Bethany, N. C., July 25, 1826. Graduated from Princeton University in 1774. Maintained at his home in North Carolina an "academy of sciences," in which he was the only teacher.

HARLAN, RICHARD. Physician and paleontologist.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., September 19, 1796; died in New Orleans, La., September 30, 1843.

HARPER, LEWIS (Ludwig Hafner).

Of Hamburg, Germany. In 1855–1857, professor of geology and agriculture and State geologist of Mississippi.

HARTT, CHARLES FREDERICK. Geologist.

Born in Fredericton, New Brunswick, August 23, 1840; died in Rio Janeiro, Brazil, March 18, 1878. In 1864, connected with geological survey of New Brunswick. In 1865–1866, geologist on the Thayer Expedition to Brazil. In 1868, appointed professor of natural history in Vassar College, but resigned shortly to accept chair of geology in Cornell University, which he held until time of his death. In 1875, appointed chief of the geological commission of Brazil.

Biogr. G. F. Matthew. Bull. Nat. Hist. Soc. of N. B., IX, 1890, pp. 1–24.

HAWN, FREDERICK. Civil engineer.

Born in Herkimer County, N. Y., January 5, 1810; died in Leavenworth, Kans., January 31, 1898. About 1851 appointed by Swallow assistant on Missouri geological survey, and gave particular attention to study of the coal regions. Is best known in connection with the discovery of the Permian formation in Kansas.

Biogr. G. C. Broadhead. Am. Geol., XXI, 1898, pp. 267–69.

HAY, ROBERT. Geologist.

Born of Scottish ancestors, May, 1835, in Lancashire, England; died in Junction City, Kans., December 14, 1895. Came to America in 1871, and for ten years taught in the public schools. In 1881 appointed State geologist of Kansas. In 1890 geologist in charge of the artesian investigation of the Great Plains under Department of Agriculture. During last five years of his life connected with U. S. Geological Survey in special work on underground waters of Kansas. His papers were about thirty, principally upon geology.

Biogr. Robt. T. Hill. Bull. Geol. Soc. Amer., VIII, 1896, pp. 370–74.

HAYDEN, FERDINAND VANDIVEER. Geologist.

Born in Westfield, Mass., September 7, 1829; died in Philadelphia, Pa., December 22, 1887. Graduated from Oberlin College in 1850. Assistant to James Hall in 1853; engaged in independent geological work in the West, 1854–1856. Geologist to the Warren Expedition to the Yellowstone region in 1856 and to the Black Hills in 1857. In 1858, with Meek, engaged in explorations in Kansas. In 1859, appointed surgeon and naturalist to exploring party under Capt. W. F. Raynolds about the headwaters of the Missouri. In 1865–1872, professor of geology and mineralogy in University of Pennsylvania. In 1869, appointed United States geologist in charge of survey of Nebraska, and in 1868 to similar position in Wyoming. In 1869–1879, Director U. S. Geological and Geographical Surveys, and from 1880–1886, geologist on United States geological surveys under J. W. Powell.

Biogr. C. A. White. Mem. Nat. Acad. Sci., November, 1894.

HAYDEN, HORACE H.

Born in Windsor, Conn., October 13, 1768; died in Baltimore, Md., January 26, 1844. Trained for profession of architect, and subsequently became practicing dentist. His chief claims to geological recognition lies in his authorship of geological essays published in 1820 and two papers on local geology.

Biogr. Amer. Journal Dental Sciences, IV, No. 4, 1844.

HILDRETH, SAMUEL PRESCOTT. Physician.

Born in Methuen, Mass., September 30, 1783; died in Marietta, Ohio, July 24, 1863. Settled in Ohio at Belpre in 1806, and in 1808 removed to Marietta, where he began the first meteorological register in the State, keeping it up for fifty years. One of a commission of three in 1836 to report on geological survey of Ohio. Served as assistant geologist for a time under Mather. His work is largely of an historical nature.

Biogr. Chas. Whittlesey, Mag. of Western History, 1881.
Amer. Journ. Sci., XXXVI, 1863, p. 312.

HILGARD, EUGENE WALDEMAR. Chemist and geologist.

Born in Zweibrucken, Rhenish Bavaria, January 5, 1833. Came to America in 1835. Educated in Germany, returning to America in 1855. In 1855–1856, assistant to B. L. C. Wailes on State geological survey of Mississippi. In 1856–1857, chemist of the Smithsonian Institution and lecturer on chemistry in National Medical College. In 1858–1860, State geologist of Mississippi. In 1865–1873, professor of chemistry at University of Mississippi. In 1873–1875, professor of geology and natural history, University of Michigan. Since 1875, professor of agricultural chemistry in University of California.

Biogr. Nat. Cyclo. Amer. Biog., X, p. 308.

HIND, HENRY YOULE. Chemist and geologist.

Born in Nottingham, England, June, 1823. Educated at Leipzig and Cambridge. Came to America in 1846 and the following year settled in Canada. In 1851, became professor of chemistry and geology in Trinity College, Toronto. In 1857, geologist to Red River Exploring Expedition. In 1858, in charge of exploration of country between Red River and Saskatchewan. In 1861, made explorations in Labrador, and in 1864, appointed director of geological survey of New Brunswick. Professor of chemistry and natural history in Kings College, Nova Scotia.

HITCHCOCK, CHARLES HENRY. Geologist.

Born in Amherst, Mass., August 23, 1836. Graduated from Amherst College, 1856. Assistant State geologist of Vermont, 1857–1861; State geologist of Maine, 1861–1862; State geologist of New Hampshire, 1868–1878. In 1866, elected professor of geology in Lafayette College. Since 1868, professor of geology in Dartmouth College.

HITCHCOCK, EDWARD. Geologist, clergyman, and educator.

Born in Deerfield, Mass., May 23, 1793; died in Amherst, Mass., February 27, 1864. Educated as a clergyman and settled over a Congregational Church at Conway, Mass., from 1821–1825. In 1825–1845, professor of chemistry and natural history at Amherst College; in 1845–1855, president of Amherst College; in 1855–1864, professor of geology in Amherst College. In 1830–1833 and 1841–1844, State geologist of Massachusetts; in 1857–1860, State geologist of Vermont. Is best remembered for his work on the drift and the fossil footprints of the sandstones of the Connecticut Valley.

Biogr. C. H. Hitchcock. Am. Geol. XVI, 1895, pp. 133–149.
Pop. Sci. Monthly, XLVII, Sept., 1895, pp. 689–696.
Am. Jour. Sci., XXXVII, May, 1864, p. 302.
Biogr. Mems., Natl. Acad. Sci., I, 1877.

HODGE, JAMES THATCHER. Geologist.

Born in Plymouth, Mass., March 12, 1816; drowned in Lake Huron, October 20, 1871. Assistant on State geological survey of Maine under C. T. Jackson and on that of Pennsylvania under H. D. Rogers. Also served on geological surveys of New Hampshire and Ohio. Was engaged in exploration of mining regions of Lake Superior when drowned in wreck of steamer *R. G. Coburn*, on Lake Huron.

HOLMES, WILLIAM HENRY. Ethnologist.

Born in Harrison County, Ohio, December 1, 1846. Graduated from McNeely Normal College, 1870. Assistant on United States geological survey under Hayden,

1872–1880; geologist on United States survey under Powell, 1880–1889. Curator, U. S. National Museum, 1882–1893; archaeologist in explorations of U. S. Bureau Ethnology, 1889–1893; curator anthropology, Field Columbian Museum, 1894–1898; head curator of anthropology, U. S. National Museum, 1898–1904; Director, Bureau of American Ethnology, since 1905.

HOUGHTON, DOUGLASS. Explorer and geologist.

Born at Fredonia, N. Y., September 21, 1809; drowned near mouth of Eagle River, Lake Superior, October 13, 1845. Assistant to Eaton in natural sciences at the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, 1828. Admitted to practice of medicine in 1831. Surgeon and botanist to the Schoolcraft Exploring Expedition to the source of the Mississippi River; State geologist of Michigan, 1837–1845.

Biogr. Alvah Bradish. Mem. of Douglas Houghton, Detroit, 1889.
Alex. Winchell. Am. Geol., IV, Sept., 1889, pp. 129–139.
Am. Jour. Sci., V, 1848, pp. 217–227.

HOWELL, EDWIN EUGENE.

Born in Genesee County, N. Y., March 12, 1845. In 1872–1873, geologist with Wheeler survey west of one-hundredth meridian. In 1874, connected with the Powell survey of Rocky Mountain region.

HUBBARD, BELA.

Born in Hamilton, Madison County, N. Y., April 23, 1814; died in Detroit, Mich., June 13, 1896. Graduated from Hamilton College in 1834. Removed to Detroit, Mich., in 1835. Assistant State geologist of Michigan, 1838–1841.

Biogr. Mag. of Western History, IV, 1886.

HUBBARD, OLIVER PAYSON. Chemist.

Born in Pomfret, Conn., March 31, 1809; died in New York City, March 9, 1900. Assistant to B. Silliman in chemistry at Yale, 1831–1836. In 1836–1866, professor of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology in Darmouth College, Hanover, N. H. Lecturer on chemistry and pharmacy at same institution, 1866–1883.

Biogr. E. O. Hovey. Am. Geol., June, 1900, p. 360.

HUNT, THOMAS STERRY. Chemist.

Born in Norwich, Conn., September 5, 1826; died in New York City, February 12, 1892. In 1846–47, chemist to the geological survey of Vermont under C. B. Adams. In 1847–1872, chemist and mineralogist to the geological survey of Canada. In 1856–1862, lecturer on chemical geology in Laval University of Quebec; subsequently professor of chemistry and mineralogy in McGill University, Montreal. In 1872–1878, professor of geology in Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Biogr. Persifor Frazer. Am. Geol., XI, 1893, pp. 1–13.
Canadian Record of Science, V, 1892–93, pp. 145–149.

HYATT, ALPHEUS. Biologist and paleontologist.

Born in Washington City, April 5, 1838; died in Cambridge, Mass., January 15, 1902. In 1867, curator in Essex Institute, Salem, Mass. In 1871, elected custodian of the Boston Society of Natural History, and in 1881, curator; professor zoology and paleontology in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Biogr. R. S. Tarr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, Dec., 1885, pp. 261–267.
W. O. Crosby. Bull. Geol. Soc. Amer., XVI, 1903.

IRVING, ROLAND DUER. Geologist.

Born in New York, April 29, 1847; died in Madison, Wis., May 30, 1888. Began active life as superintendent of smelting works at Greenville, N. J. Assistant on State geological survey of Ohio. In 1870–1888, professor of geology, mineralogy, and metallurgy in University of Wisconsin. In 1873–1879, assistant geologist on geological survey of Wisconsin. In 1880–1888, connected with U. S. Geological Survey, working in Lake Superior region.

Biogr. T. C. Chamberlin. Am. Geol., III, 1889, pp. 1–6.

JACKSON, CHARLES THOMAS. Geologist and chemist.

Born in Plymouth, Mass., June 21, 1805; died in Somerville, Mass., August 28, 1880. Educated as physician, but early showed inclination toward geological work. In 1827–28, made geological explorations in Nova Scotia in company with Francis Alger. In 1837–1839, State geologist of Maine. In 1839–40, State geologist of Rhode Island. In 1839–1843, State geologist of New Hampshire. In 1847, appointed a United States geologist to investigate mineral land of Lake Superior region. Appointed one of the State geologists of New York, but declined.

Biogr. J. B. Woodworth. Am. Geol., XX, 1897, pp. 69–110.

JAMES, EDWIN. Physician.

Born in Weybridge, Vt., August 27, 1797; died near Burlington, Ill., October 28, 1861. In 1820, attached in capacity of botanist and geologist to Long's exploring expedition to sources of St. Peters River.

Biogr. Am. Jour. Sci., XXXIII, 1862, p. 428.

JAMES, URIAH PIERSON. Paleontologist.

Born in Goshen, Orange County, N. Y., December 30, 1811; died near Loveland, Ohio, February 25, 1889. Began life as printer and stereotyper and afterwards became publisher, in which profession he continued till the time of his death. His work, almost wholly paleontological, was done during spare moments.

Biogr. American Geologist, III, No. 5, 1889, pp. 281–285.

JOHNSON, WALTER ROGERS. Chemist.

Born in Leominster, Mass., June 21, 1794; died in Washington City, April 26, 1852. Prior to 1836 a teacher. In 1836–37, made a survey of coal and iron formations of Pennsylvania. In 1839–1843, professor of physics and chemistry, University of Pennsylvania. In 1843–44, Government expert on relative value of coals. In 1845, chemist at Smithsonian Institution. Founder of American Association of Naturalists and Geologists.

Biogr. Lamb's Biogr. Dict. of U. S.

KEATING, WILLIAM HYPOLITUS. Chemist.

Born in Wilmington, Del., August 11, 1799; died in London, England, May 17, 1840. In 1822–1828, professor of chemistry in University of Pennsylvania, and in 1823, accompanied Maj. S. H. Long in expedition to sources of the St. Peters River.

Biogr. Lamb's Biogr. Dict. of U. S.

KERR, WASHINGTON CARUTHERS. Geologist.

Born in the Alamance region of Guilford County, N. C., May 24, 1827; died in Asheville, N. C., August 9, 1885. At one time professor in Marshall University, Texas, resigning in 1852 to become a computer in the office of the Nautical Almanac. In 1857–1865, professor in Davidson College, North Carolina. In 1866–1882, State geologist of North Carolina. In 1882–83, connected with the U. S. Geological Survey.

Biogr. J. A. Holmes, Journ. Elisha Mitchell Scientific Soc., Part II, 1887, pp. 1–24.

KING, CLARENCE. Geologist.

Born in Newport, R. I., January 6, 1842; died in Phœnix, Ariz., December 24, 1901. Graduated at Sheffield Scientific School in 1862. In 1863, made a horseback journey across the continent, and for three years was volunteer assistant to Prof. J. D. Whitney on the geological survey of California. During 1865–66, made an exploration of the desert regions of southern California and Arizona as scientific aid to General McDowell. In 1866–67, organized the Geological Survey of the 40th Parallel and was appointed director. From 1879 until 1881, director of the newly organized U. S. Geological Survey.

Biogr. S. F. Emmons, Am. Jour. Sci., March, 1902, pp. 224–237.
S. F. Emmons, Eng. and Min. Jour., Dec. 28, 1901, p. 844; Jan. 4, 1902, pp. 1, 3.

KING, FRANKLIN HIRAM.

Born in Whitewater, Wis., June 8, 1848. Graduated from State Normal School, Whitewater, in 1872. On Wisconsin geological survey, 1873–1876; professor of natural sciences, River Falls State Normal School, 1878–1888; since 1888, professor of agricultural physics at University of Wisconsin.

KITCHELL, WILLIAM. Geologist.

Born in East Madison, N. J., April 21, 1827; died, December 29, 1861. Studied medicine, but did not engage in its practice. Taught natural sciences in Newark Institute, and, about 1850, went to Europe and studied in the Mining School at Freiberg, Germany. In 1854–1856, State geologist of New Jersey.

LAPHAM, INCREASE ALLEN. Naturalist.

Born in Palmyra, N. Y., March 7, 1811; died near Oconomowoc, Wis., September, 1876. An all-round scientist and educator; author of many papers on botany, climatology, archæology, cartography, and geology. Chief geologist of Wisconsin, 1873–1875.

Biogr. N. H. Winchell, American Geologist, XIII, 1894, pp. 1–38.

LEA, ISAAC. Conchologist and mineralogist.

Born in Wilmington, Del., March 4, 1792; died in Philadelphia, Pa., December 8, 1886. Trained to mercantile life in Philadelphia, retiring from business in 1851. Was an authority on the Unionidæ, of which he made a very large collection, subsequently willed, together with his large and valuable collection of minerals and gems, to the Smithsonian Institution, in Washington.

Biogr. Pop. Science Monthly, July, 1884, pp. 404–411.
Wm. H. Dall, Some American Conchologists. Proc. Biol. Soc. Washington, IV, 1886–88, pp. 118–120.

LE CONTE, JOHN LAWRENCE. Naturalist.

Born in New York, May 3, 1825; died in Philadelphia, Pa., November 15, 1883. His work was mainly in entomology.

LE CONTE, JOSEPH. Physician and naturalist.

Born on Woodmanston plantation, Liberty County, Ga., February 26, 1823; died in Yosemite, Cal., July 6, 1901. Of Huguenot and Puritan ancestry. In 1845, graduated from College of Physicians and Surgeons in New York and became practicing physician in Georgia. In 1850, studied at Cambridge under Agassiz; in 1852, professor of science at Oglethorpe University, Midway, Ga.; in 1853–1856, professor of natural history at University of Georgia, Athens, Ga.; in 1857–1868, professor of chemistry and geology at South Carolina College, Columbia; in 1869, called to University of California to fill chair of botany, zoology, and geology, remaining there until his death. A voluminous writer on geology and kindred subjects.

Biogr. S. B. Christy, Trans. Amer. Inst. Min. Engs., XXXI, 1902, pp. 765–793.

LEIDY, JOSEPH. Vertebrate paleontologist.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., September 9, 1823; died in Philadelphia, Pa., August 30, 1891. Educated as a physician, and in 1844, assistant in chemical laboratory of Doctors Hare and J. B. Rogers. In 1846, demonstrator of anatomy in the Franklin Medical College. In 1852, substituted for Doctor Horner as professor of anatomy in the University of Pennsylvania, and in 1853, on the death of Doctor Horner, elected to full professorship. In 1871, appointed professor of natural history in Swarthmore College. Was one of the first Americans to take up the study of vertebrate fossils, and was prominently identified with the early Hayden and other western geological and geographical surveys.

Biogr. E. J. Nolan, Pop. Sci. Monthly, XVII, Sept. 1880, pp. 684–91.

LESLEY, J. PETER. Topographer and geologist.

Born in Philadelphia, September 17, 1819, of Scotch extraction; died in Milton, Mass., June 1, 1903. In 1839–1841, assistant on the State survey of Pennsylvania under H. D. Rogers, mainly in the capacity of topographer. In 1847, became pastor

of a Congregational Church in Milton, Mass. This he soon resigned, and thereafter devoted himself to science. Was United States commissioner at the Paris Exposition in 1867. In 1872, professor of geology and dean of faculty in scientific department of the University of Pennsylvania. In 1874, chief geologist of the second geological survey of Pennsylvania.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, Sept. 1884, pp. 693–5.
Bull. Geol. Soc. Amer., XV, 1904, p. 532.
Persifor Frazer in American Geologist, XXXII, No. 3, 1903, pp. 132–6.

LESQUEREUX, LEO. Botanist and paleobotanist.

Born in Fleurier, Neuchatel, Switzerland, November 18, 1806; died in Columbus, Ohio, October 25, 1889. Came to America in 1848 and worked first at Boston with Agassiz and subsequently with Sullivant in Columbus, Ohio. Served as paleobotanist on geological surveys of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Kentucky, and Arkansas; also in a similar capacity on the U. S. Geological Survey under F. V. Hayden.

Biogr. Edward Orton, American Geologist, V, 1890, pp. 284–296.
L. R. McCabe in Pop. Sci. Monthly, XXX, Apr. 1887, pp. 835–40; XXXVIII, Dec. 1889, p. 288.

LIEBER, OSCAR MONTGOMERY. Geologist.

Born in Boston, Mass., September 18, 1830; died in Richmond, Va., June 27, 1862. In 1850–51, State geologist of Mississippi; in 1854–55, State geologist of Alabama; and in 1856–1860, State geologist of South Carolina.

Biog. Lamb's Biog. Dict. of U. S.

LITTLE, GEORGE. Geologist.

Born in Tuscaloosa, Ala., February 11, 1838. Graduated from University of Alabama in 1856; professor natural sciences, Oakland College, Mississippi, 1860–61; State geologist of Mississippi, 1866–1872; professor of mineralogy and geology, University of Mississippi, 1866–1874 and 1881–1889; State geologist of Georgia, 1874–1881; professor of geology and agriculture, University of Georgia, 1878–1880.

LITTON, ABRAM. Chemist.

Born in Dublin, Ireland, May 20, 1814; died in St. Louis, Mo., September 23, 1901. Came to America about 1817. For two seasons connected with geological survey under D. D. Owen, and reported on lead mines of southeast Missouri in the Second Annual Report of the State Survey.

LOCKE, JOHN.

Born in Lempster, N. H., February 19, 1792; died in Cincinnati, Ohio, July 10, 1856. By profession a physician and teacher. In 1835–36, professor of chemistry in the Medical College of Ohio. In 1837–1839, assistant to W. W. Mather on the State geological survey of Ohio. In 1839–1844, assistant to D. D. Owen in the survey of the mineral lands of the United States. In 1847–48, aid to Jackson in surveys of the mineral lands of Michigan. More widely known for his magnetic and astronomical researches than as a geologist.

Biogr. N. H. Winchell, American Geologist, XIV, 1894, pp. 341–56.

LOGAN, WILLIAM EDMOND. Geologist.

Born in Montreal, Canada, April 20, 1798; died in Castle Malgwyn, Llechryd, South Wales, June 22, 1875. Educated in Scotland and passed his early manhood in England and Wales, but returned to America in 1840. During 1842–1870, director of the geological survey of Canada.

Biogr. B. J. Harrington, Life of Sir Wm. E. Logan, Montreal, 1883. Also Geol. Soc, London and Canadian Naturalist, n. ser., VIII, No. 1, 1875,

MACFARLANE, JAMES. Lawyer.

Born in Gettysburg, Pa., September 2, 1819; died in Towanda, Pa., October 12, 1885. Engineer of the North Branch Canal; a leading member of the bar at Towanda; a successful coal operator and railway builder. Author of The Coal Regions of America and An American Geological Railway Guide.

Biogr. I. C. White, American Geologist, VII, 1891, pp. 145–149.

MACLURE, WILLIAM.

Born in Ayr, Scotland, in 1763; died in San Angel, Mexico, March 23, 1840. Came to America at the age of 19 on mercantile business but returned almost immediately to London, where, as partner in the house of Miller, Hart & Co., he remained until 1796, accumulating a considerable fortune. In the last-named year he again came to America and, it is said, took out naturalization papers. He was a liberal patron of science and for twenty-two years, beginning with December, 1817, was president of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, to which institution he donated his valuable private library and $25,000 in money.

Biogr. S. G. Morton, Mem. of Wm. Maclure, read July 1, 1841, and published by direction of Philadelphia Academy of Sciences.

MARCOU, JULES. Geologist.

Born in Salins, Jura, France, April 20, 1824; died in Cambridge, Mass., April 17, 1898. Came to America in 1847 and was associated for a time with Louis Agassiz. In 1853 entered United States service and was one of the geologists of the Pacific Railroad Survey of the thirty-fifth parallel, and the author of a geological map of the United States. In 1853 returned to Europe and was professor of geology in the Polytechnic School of Zurich until 1859. In 1860–1864, in charge of division of paleontology of the Museum of Comparative Anatomy, Cambridge.

MARCY, OLIVER. Educator.

Born in Coleraine, Mass., February 13, 1820; died in Evanston, Ill., March 19, 1899. Instructor in mathematics and geology at Wilbraham, Mass., for sixteen years prior to 1862, when he was elected professor of natural sciences in Northwestern University, at Evanston, Ill.

Biogr. A. R. Crook, American Geologist, XXIV, 1899, pp. 67–72.

MARSH, OTHNIEL CHARLES. Vertebrate paleontologist.

Born near Lockport, N. Y., October 29, 1831; died in New Haven, Conn., March 18, 1899. Professor of vertebrate paleontology in Yale College from 1866 to time of death. Vertebrate paleontologist, U. S. Geological Survey, 1882–1899. Honorary curator vertebrate paleontology, U. S. National Museum, 1894–1899. Since 1870 identified with explorations in the West, and chiefly instrumental in bringing together the large and valuable collection of vertebrate remains now in the National Museum.

Biogr. C. E. Beecher, Am. Jour. Sci., VII, 1899, pp. 403–28.

MARVINE, ARCHIBALD ROBERTSON. Geologist.

Born in Auburn, N. Y., September 26, 1848; died in Washington City, March 2, 1876. In 1870, assistant geologist to the Santo Domingo expedition. In 1871, astronomer, and afterwards geologist to the Wheeler surveys west of the one hundredth meridian. In 1872, with Professor Pumpelly in the Keweenaw copper district of Lake Superior, and from 1873 until his death, connected with the U. S. Geographical and Geological Surveys under F. V. Hayden.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, IX, 1876, p. 383.
Biogr. J. W. Powell, Bull. Philos. Soc. Washington, II. 1874–1878. Appendix X, p. (53),
G. K. Gilbert, Am. Jour. Sci., XI, 1876, p. 424.

MATHER, WILLIAM WILLIAMS. Geologist.

Born in Brooklyn, N. Y., May 24, 1804; died in Columbus, Ohio, February 26, 1859. Trained at West Point Military Academy. In 1829–1835, assistant professor in chemistry, mineralogy, and geology at that academy. In 1833, professor of geology at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn. In 1835, assistant to G. W. Featherstonhaugh. For a short period professor of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology in the University of Louisiana. In 1836–1846, in charge geological survey first district, State of New York. In 1837–1839, State geologist of Ohio, and made geological reconnaissance of Kentucky in 1838–39. In 1842–1850, connected with the Ohio University at Athens, Ohio, in capacity of professor of natural sciences, or vice-president and act-

ing president. Acting professor of geology at Marietta College, 1846. Agricultural chemist to the State and secretary of the State board of agriculture, Ohio, 1850–1854.

Biogr. Lamb's Dict. of the U. S.

MEEK, FIELDING BRADFORD. Paleontologist.

Born in Madison, Ind., December 10, 1817; died in Washington City, December 21, 1876. Assistant to D. D. Owen, surveys of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, 1848–49. Assistant to James Hall, 1852–1858. Associated with F. V. Hayden on the Western Surveys beginning with 1853. In 1858, removed to Washington, where he continued to reside until his death.

Biogr. C. A. White, Mem. Nat. Acad. Sci., 1896.

MITCHELL, ELISHA. Naturalist.

Born in Washington, Conn., August 19, 1793; died on Black Mountain, N. C., June 27, 1857. Professor of mathematics, University of North Carolina, 1818 until his death, which was the result of an accident while exploring what is now known as Mount Mitchell in North Carolina. He was an all-round naturalist, and remembered for his works on the geology and general natural history of the State and the Mount Mitchell localities in particular.

Biogr. Journal, Elisha Mitchell, Sci. Soc., I, 1884, p. 6.
Obit. Amer. Journ. Sci. XXIV, 1857, p. 299.

MITCHILL, SAMUEL LATHAM. Naturalist.

Born in North Hempstead, Long Island, August 20, 1764; died in New York City, September 7, 1831. Educated as a physician. In 1792–1801, professor of natural history, chemistry, and agriculture in Columbia College. In 1801–1813, served in Congress. In 1808–1820, professor of natural sciences in College of Physicians and Surgeons, and later professor of materia medica and botany in the same institution. An extremely versatile and gifted man, and one of the founders of the Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, Manufacture, and the Useful Arts, in 1793.

Biogr. H. L. Fairchild, History New York Acad. Sci., 1887, p. 57.

MORTON, SAMUEL GEORGE. Conchologist and paleontologist.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., January 26, 1799; died in Philadelphia May 15, 1851. Trained for mercantile career. Graduated at University of Pennsylvania in medicine in 1820, and afterwards studied in Europe. Practiced medicine in Philadelphia. His synopsis of organic remains in the Cretaceous formation of the United States gave him scientific reputation. In 1839–1843, professor of anatomy in Pennsylvania Medical College. President, Philadelphia Academy National Sciences in 1849.

Biogr. Wm. H. Dall. Some American Conchologists. Proc. Bio. Soc. of Washington, IV, 1886–8, p. 105.

MUDGE, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN. Chemist and geologist.

Born in Orrington, Me., August 11, 1817; died in Manhattan, Kans., November 21, 1879. Educated as a lawyer. During 1859–60, employed as chemist in oil refineries. In 1864, appointed State geologist of Kansas. In 1865–1873, professor of natural history in the Kansas Agricultural College.

Biogr. S. W. Williston. American Geologist, XXIII, No. 6, 1899, pp. 339–345.

MURRAY, ALEXANDER. Geologist.

Born at Dollerie House, Crieff, in Perthshire, Scotland, June 2, 1810; died there, December 16, 1884. Came to Canada in 1843 as assistant to Logan on geological survey of Canada. From 1864 to 1880, engaged in making geological survey of Newfoundland.

Biogr. Robert Bell. Canadian Record of Science, V, 1892–3, pp. 77–96.

MURRISH, JOHN M.

Born in Cornwall, England, March 8, 1820; died in Mazomanie, Wis., August 17, 1886. Was superintendent of mine in Cornwall. Came to America and settled at Mineral Point, Wis., about 1848. In 1860 removed to Mazomanie, Wis., where he

engaged in mercantile pursuits in 1865. In early life a regularly ordained preacher in the Protestant Methodist Church. State geologist of Wisconsin in 1870.

Biogr. Mazomanie, Wis., "Sickle," Aug. 21, 1886.

NEWBERRY, JOHN STRONG. Stratigraphic geologist and paleontologist.

Born in Windsor, Conn., December 22, 1822; died in New Haven, Conn., December 7, 1892. Received degree of M. D. from Cleveland Medical School in 1848. Practiced medicine in Cleveland, 1851–1854. Geologist with Lieutenant Wilkinson's party in Pacific Railroad survey, 1855; with Lieutenant Ives in exploration of Colorado River in 1857; with Captain Macomb's party in Mexico in 1859. From 1866 to the time of his death professor of geology and paleontology in Columbia College, New York City. In 1869–1884, State geologist of Ohio.

Biogr. J. J. Stevenson. Am. Geologist, XII, 1893, pp. 1–26.
J. F. Kemp. School of Mines Quarterly, 1893.
H. L. Fairchild. Hist. N. Y. Acad. Sciences, 1887.

NEWTON, HENRY. Geologist.

Born in New York, August 12, 1845; died in Black Hills of Dakota, August 5, 1877. Graduated from College of City of New York and from Columbia College (School of Mines). In 1869–1876, assistant in metallurgy and geology at Columbia. Assistant geologist of Ohio geological survey and in 1876, assistant engineer on Black Hills expedition. In 1877, was appointed professor of mineralogy and metallurgy in Ohio State University, but did not live to fill that chair.

NILES, WILLIAM HARMON. Geologist and educator.

Born in Northampton, Mass. Educated at Harvard and Yale. Professor of physical geology and geography in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1871–1878; professor of geology and geography, 1878–1902.

NORWOOD, JOSEPH GRANVILLE. Physician and paleontologist.

Born in Woodford County, Ky., December 20, 1807; died in Columbia, Mo., May 6, 1895. Educated as a physician. In 1840–1843, professor of surgery in Madison Medical Institute, Indiana. In 1843–1847, professor of medicine in the St. Louis University. In 1847–1851, assistant geologist with D. D. Owen on the surveys of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota. In 1851–1858, State geologist of Illinois. In 1858–1860, assistant geologist of Missouri. In 1860–1870, professor of geology, chemistry, and natural sciences in University of Missouri. Writings on geology mainly of a paleontological nature.

Biogr. G. C. Broadhead. Amer. Geol., XVI, No. 2, Aug., 1895, p. 69.

OLMSTED, DENISON. Educator.

Born in East Hartford, Conn., June 18, 1791; died in New Haven May 13, 1859. He was graduated from Yale in 1813. Tutor there, 1815–1817. In 1817, appointed professor of chemistry in the University of North Carolina. In 1824–25, engaged in making a geological and mineralogical survey of North Carolina. During 1825 to 1835, professor of mathematics and natural philosophy in Yale. From 1835 to time of his last illness, professor of natural philosophy and astronomy in Yale. Author of text-books on natural philosophy, astronomy, and meteorology, and perhaps most widely known by his papers on meteoric showers.

Biogr. Am. Jour. Sci. XXVIII, Nov., 1859, pp. 109–118.
New Englander, August, 1859.
Popular Science Monthly, Jan., 1895, pp. 401–408.

ORTON, EDWARD. Geologist.

Born in Deposit, Delaware County, N. Y., March 9, 1829; died in Columbus, Ohio, October 16, 1899. Studied for the ministry and was ordained pastor of the Presbyterian church at Downsville, Delaware County, N. Y. In 1856 he resigned to become professor of natural sciences in New York State Normal School at Albany. Principal of the preparatory department of Antioch College, in Yellowsprings, Ohio, from 1865 to 1872, being elected to the presidency of the college at the latter date. Became president of the State Agricultural College in 1873, which position he occu-

pied until time of his death. Became State geologist of Ohio in 1882. His principal work as an investigator related to the occurrence and origin of petroleum and clays.

Biogr. J. J. Stevenson. Journ. of Geol., VIII, No. 3, 1900, pp. 205–213.
Science, Jan. 5, 1900, pp. 1–12.
Pop. Sci. Monthly, March, 1900, pp. 607–613.
Amer. Geologist, XXV, Apr., 1900, pp. 197–210.
E. O. Hovey. Eng. & Min. Journ., XLVIII, No. 17, Oct. 21, 1899, p. 485.

OWEN, DAVID DALE. Geologist.

Born near New Lanark, Scotland, June 24, 1807; died in New Harmony, Ind., November 13, 1860. Came to America in 1824, but returned to Scotland in 1826, returning again to America in 1827. Graduated as doctor of medicine in 1836. Connected with State geological survey of Tennessee under Troost. State geologist of Indiana, 1837–38. Made surveys of the Dubuque and Mineral Point districts of Wisconsin and Iowa, 1839–40. In 1847, was appointed United States geologist, and directed to make survey of the Chippewa land district. In 1854, was appointed State geologist of Kentucky; in 1857, State geologist of Arkansas; in 1859, appointed for the second time State geologist of Indiana.

Biogr. American Geologist, IV, Aug., 1889, pp. 65–72.

OWEN, RICHARD. Educator.

Born in New Lanark, Scotland, January 6, 1810; died in New Harmony, Ind., March 25, 1890. Came to America with his brother, David Dale Owen, in 1827. Was chief assistant to his brother, David Dale, during explorations of northern shore of Lake Superior. For a time professor in Western Military Institute in Kentucky, and the State University in Nashville. Professor of natural sciences in University of Indiana from 1864 to 1879.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, XXIII, pp. 109–113; Pop. Sci. Monthly, XXXVII, p. 144.

PEALE, ALBERT CHARLES. Geologist.

Born in Hecksherville, Pa., April 1, 1849. Graduated from University of Pennsylvania, M. D., in 1871. Mineralogist and geologist, U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey of Territories, 1871–1879; geologist, U. S. Geological Survey, 1881–1898. Since 1898 he has had charge of paleobotanical collections in U. S. National Museum.

PERCIVAL, JAMES GATES. Geologist and litterateur.

Born in Kensington, Conn., September 15, 1795; died in Hazelgreen, Wis., May 2, 1856. Received the degree of M. D. in 1820, but never practiced medicine. In 1824, professor of chemistry at the West Point Military Academy. In 1835, was appointed, in company with Prof. C. U. Shepard, to make geological and mineralogical survey of Connecticut. State geologist of Wisconsin, 1854–1856.

Biogr. Am. Journ. Sci., XXII, 1856, pp. 150–1.
Geol. Survey of Wisconsin, 1856. Preface.

PERRY, JOHN BULKLEY. Clergyman and geologist.

Born in Richmond, Berkshire County, Mass., December 12, 1825; died in Cambridge, Mass., October 30, 1872. Graduated in theology from Andover in 1853, and was preacher until 1867. In that year was appointed lecturer on geology and assistant to Louis Agassiz in paleontology at Harvard. In 1869, lectured on geology in University of Vermont. In 1871, accepted professorship of geology in Oberlin, Ohio.

Hemminways Gazetteer of Vt., for 1904.
Amer. Jour. Sci., IV, 1872, p. 424.

PETER, ROBERT. Chemist.

Born in Cornwall, England, January 21, 1805; died in Louisville, Ky., 1894. Came to America in 1821. In 1830, professor of chemistry in the Western University of Pennsylvania. In 1832, professor of chemistry in Morrison College, Lexington, Ky. Also served in a similar position in the Transylvania University and in the Kentucky School of Medicine at Louisville. Subsequent to 1865, professor of chemistry in the

Kentucky State College. Was at the head of the chemical department of the State Geological Survey, 1854–1861, and particularly active in the study of soils and mineral waters.

Biogr. Memorial Trans. Ky. State Med. Soc. III, 1895.

POTTER, WILLIAM BLEECKER. Mining engineer and metallurgist.

Born in Schenectady, N. Y., March 23, 1846. Graduated from Columbia, 1866; assistant, geology, Columbia, 1869–1871. Assistant on geological survey of Ohio; professor mining and metallurgy, Washington University, St. Louis, 1871.

POWELL, JOHN WESLEY. Ethnologist and administrator.

Born in Mount Morris, N. Y., March 24, 1834; died in Haven, Me., September 23, 1902. Served through civil war, reaching rank of major. After war, professor of geology in Illinois Wesleyan University and Illinois Normal University. Explored Grand Canyon of Colorado, 1869. In 1871–1879, at head of survey of the Rocky Mountains. In 1879, the Bureau of Ethnology was established and Major Powell made director, a place that he held until his death. In 1881–1894, also director of U. S. Geological Survey.

Wm. H. Brewer. Am. Jour. Sci., XIV, Nov., 1902. pp. 377–382.
Biogr. G. P. Merrill. Am. Geologist, June, '03. pp. 327–333.

PRIME, FREDERICK. Geologist and metallurgist.

Born in Philadelphia, March 1, 1846. Graduated from Columbia College, 1865, A. M. Studied four years at Royal School of Mines, Freiberg, Saxony. Assistant professor Columbia School of Mines, 1869–70; professor geology and metallurgy, Lafayette College, 1870–1879; assistant State geologist of Pennsylvania, 1874–1879; professor natural history, Girard College, since 1895.

PUMPELLY, RAPHAEL. Geologist.

Born in Oswego, N. Y., September 8, 1837. In 1862–63, employed in economic work by Japanese and Chinese Governments. In 1865, appointed professor of mining engineering in Harvard University. In 1869–1871, State geologist of Michigan, and, 1872–73, director of State survey of Missouri. In 1881, director northern transcontinental survey, and, 1884–1890, in charge archean division of the U. S. Geological Survey.

Biogr. Nat. Cyclopedia, VI, p. 362.

REDFIELD, WILLIAM C. Meteorologist.

Born near Middletown, Conn., March 26, 1789; died in New York City, February 12, 1857. Wrote principally on meteorology, being the author of some 62 papers on this subject. Also wrote articles on geology, with particular reference to the eastern Triassic areas.

Biogr. Am. Jour. Sci., XXIII, 1857, pp. 292–293; XXIV, 1857, pp. 355–373; Canadian Nat. & Geol., II, 1857, pp. 426–446.
H. L. Fairchild. History of New York Academy of Science, 1887, pp. 76–81.

ROEPPER, WILLIAM T. Mineralogist.

Born in Peilau, Lower Silesia, March 7, 1810; died in Bethlehem, Pa., March 11, 1880. Came to America in 1840 in the service of the Moravian Church. In 1866, was appointed professor of mineralogy and geology and curator of museum in Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa., retaining the professorship for three years, but remaining curator until 1871. His writings were mostly of a mineralogical nature.

Biogr. Am. Jour. Sci., XIX, 1880, p. 340.

ROGERS, HENRY DARWIN. Geologist.

Born in Philadelphia, August 1, 1808, and died near Glasgow, Scotland, May 29, 1866. Professor of chemistry and natural philosophy in Dickinson College, 1830–31. Professor of geology and mineralogy in University of Pennsylvania, 1835–1846. State geologist of New Jersey, 1835–1840; State geologist of Pennsylvania, 1846–1852; regius professor of natural history in University of Glasgow, Scotland, 1857–1866.

ROGERS, WILLIAM BARTON. Geologist and educator.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., December 7, 1804; died in Boston, Mass., May 30, 1882. Professor in William and Mary College, 1827–1835. Professor of natural history, University of Virginia, 1835–1853. Director of the geological survey of Virginia, 1835–1842. One of the founders and president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1862 to the time of his death. President of American Association for the Advancement of Science in 1875.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, IX, 1876, pp. 606–611.
Life and Letters of W. B. Rogers, The Riverside Press, Cambridge, Mass.

ROMINGER, CARL LUDWIG. Physician and paleontologist.

Born in Schnaitheim, Wurttemberg, Germany, December 31, 1820. Graduated from University of Tübingen in 1839. Assistant in chemical laboratory of same university, 1842–1845. In 1845–1848, studied geological structure of various countries of Europe. Came to United States in 1848 and practiced medicine in Cincinnati for twenty-five years. In 1870–1883, director of the geological survey of Michigan.

RUFFIN, EDMUND. Agriculturist.

Born in Prince George County, Va., January 5, 1794; died, June 17, 1865. Wrote principally on soils and manures. For a time agricultural surveyor of South Carolina.

RUSSELL, ISRAEL COOK. Geologist and geographer.

Born in Garrattsville, N. Y., December 10, 1852. Graduated from New York University. Postgraduate studies in School of Mines, Columbia. Member U. S. Transit of Venus expedition to New Zealand, 1874–75; assistant in geology, Columbia, 1875–1877; assistant geologist on U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey west of one-hundredth meridian, 1878; geologist U. S. Geological Survey, 1880–1892; professor of geology, University of Michigan, since 1892.

SAFFORD, JAMES MERRILL. Geologist.

Born in Putnam (now Zanesville), Ohio, August 13, 1822. Graduated from Ohio University, at Athens, in 1844. Professor of natural science at Cumberland University, Lebanon, Tenn., from 1848 to 1872. State geologist of Tennessee, 1854–1860 and 1871–1889. For twenty-five years professor of geology in Vanderbilt University, 1875–1900.

SCHOOLCRAFT, HENRY ROWE. Explorer.

Born in Albany County, N. Y., March 28, 1793; died in Washington City, December 10, 1864. Was trained as land surveyor and became early connected with western exploring expeditions. Was naturalist and mineralogist on the expedition to explore the sources of the Mississippi River and investigate the copper deposits of Lake Superior, 1820–1822. Traveled extensively in central portions of the Mississippi Valley in 1824–25. In charge of an expedition to upper Mississippi Valley in 1832. Best known as traveler and explorer, but his notes contain much material which at the time was of geological interest and importance.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, May, 1890, pp. 113–121.
National Magazine, Jan. 1855.

SCUDDER, SAMUEL HUBBARD. Entomologist and paleontologist.

Born in Boston, Mass., April 13, 1837. Graduated from Williams College, 1857; Lawrence Scientific School, B. S., 1862. Assisted Louis Agassiz in Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard, 1862–1864; secretary Boston Society of Natural History, 1862–1870; president of same, 1880–1887. Paleontologist, U. S. Geological Survey. Voluminous writer on living and fossil insects.

SELWYN, ALFRED RICHARD CECIL. Stratigraphic geologist.

Born in Kilmington, Somersetshire, England, July 28, 1828; died in Vancouver, British Columbia, October 19, 1902. Assistant geologist on geological survey of Great Britain from 1845 to 1852. In 1853, appointed to undertake geological survey of Victoria, Australia; also made report on Tasmanian coal and gold fields, and in

1859, made survey of South Australia. In 1869, succeeded Sir William Logan as director of geological survey of Canada. In 1871, undertook exploring expedition into British Columbia. His publications number more than eighty books and pamphlets on geological subjects.

Biogr. Henry Woodward. Geological Magazine, London, Feb., 1899, pp. 49–55.
H. M. Ami. American Geologist, XXXI, No. 1, Jan. 1903, pp. 1–21.

SHALER, NATHANIEL SOUTHGATE. Geologist and educator.

Born in Newport, Ky., February 20, 1841. Graduated from Harvard in 1862. Instructor zoology and geology Lawrence Scientific School, 1868–1872; professor paleontology, 1868–1887, and since then professor geology, Harvard University; director, Kentucky geological survey, 1873–1880.

SHEPARD, CHARLES UPHAM. Mineralogist.

Born in Little Compton, R. I., June 29, 1804; died in Charleston, S. C., May 1, 1886. Graduated from Amherst College in 1824. Assisted Professor Silliman at Yale College, 1827–1845. State mineralogist of Connecticut, 1835–1837; 1845–1852; and 1861–1877, professor of chemistry and natural history in Amherst College, Massachusetts. During 1854–1861 and 1865–1869, professor of chemistry at South Carolina Medical College, Charleston.

Biogr. Am. Journ. Science, XXXI, 1886, p. 482.

SHUMARD, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN. Paleontologist.

Born in Lancaster, Pa., November 24, 1820; died in St. Louis, Mo., April 14, 1869. Educated as a physician, but early became interested in paleontology. Contributed to Owen's Report on the Geology of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota. In 1850, accompanied Doctor Evans on his geological reconnaissance of Oregon. In 1853, was appointed assistant geologist and paleontologist of the Missouri geological survey under G. C. Swallow. State geologist of Texas, 1858–1861. His work was almost wholly of a paleontological nature.

Biogr. Amer. Geol., IV, No. 1, July, 1899, pp. 1–6.
Am. Journ. Science and Arts, XLVIII, 1869, p. 294.

SILLIMAN, BENJAMIN. Chemist and educator.

Born in New Stratford (now Trumbull), Conn., August 8, 1779; died in New Haven, Conn., November 24, 1864. Professor of chemistry and natural history at Yale College, New Haven, Conn., 1802–1853. Founded the American [Silliman's] Journal of Science in 1818. Was noted as teacher, public lecturer, and writer more than an original investigator.

Am. Journ. of Science and Arts, XXXIX, May, 1865, p. 1.
George P. Fisher. Life of Benjamin Silliman, N. Y., Scribner & Co., 1866.
Memoir of Benjamin Silliman by Alexis Caswell. Mem. Nat. Acad. of Sci., I, 1877.
Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, XXIII, June, 1883, pp. 259–266.

SILLIMAN, BENJAMIN, Jr. Chemist.

Born in New Haven, Conn., December 4, 1816; died in New Haven, January 14, 1885. In 1837–1846, assistant professor, and 1837–1885, professor of chemistry at Yale College.

SMITH, C. D. Clergyman.

Born in Buncombe County, N. C., April 1, 1813. By profession a Methodist clergyman, but during a portion of 1859 and 1860 was connected with the geological survey of North Carolina under Ebenezer Emmons. Was also for a time connected with the State survey under W. C. Kerr.

SMITH, EUGENE ALLEN. Geologist.

Born in Washington, Autauga County, Ala., October 27, 1841. Graduated from University of Alabama, 1862. In 1865–1868, studied in Germany, returning to America and becoming assistant to Dr. George Little on geological survey of Mississippi. In 1871 became professor of geology and mineralogy in University of Alabama, and in 1873 was appointed State geologist, which position he still holds.

SMITH, JOHN LAWRENCE. Mineralogical chemist.

Born in Charleston, S. C., December 17, 1818; died in Louisville, Ky., October 12, 1883. Practicing physician in Charleston, S. C., and State assayer for North and South Carolina. Mining engineer to the Turkish Government, 1846–1850. Commissioner to Paris Exposition in 1867. Published many papers on the chemical composition of American minerals and was an authority on the subject of meteorites.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, VI, Dec. 1874, pp. 233–236.
Biogr. Benj. Silliman. Nat. Acad. Sci., Biogr. Memoirs. II, 1886.

SQUIRE, JOSEPH. Mining engineer.

Born in England. Came to America at age of 18. Employed in works of Peabody Furnace Company, at Providence, R. I., where he learned mining. Subsequently moved to Kansas. In 1859, went to Alabama and became engaged in coal mining and the work of a mining engineer. After 1879 was employed part of the time by State geological survey.

STEVENSON, JOHN JAMES. Geologist and educator.

Born in New York City, October 10, 1841. Graduated from New York University in 1863. United States geologist, 1873–74; with Wheeler survey west of one-hundredth meridian, 1878–1880; geologist of Pennsylvania geological survey, 1875–1878, 1881–82; professor of geology, New York University, since 1871.

SWALLOW, GEORGE CLINTON. Stratigraphic geologist.

Born in Buckfield, Oxford County, Me., in 1817; died at Evanston, Ill., April 20, 1899. Lecturer on botany as applied to agriculture and mechanical arts at Bowdoin College, 1843; principal of Brunswick Female Seminary, 1843–1849; principal of Hampden Academy, Maine, 1849; professor of chemistry, geology, and mineralogy of the University of the State of Missouri, 1851–1853; State geologist of Missouri, 1853–1861; professor of chemistry and natural science in the University of Missouri, 1857–58; assistant geologist of Kansas, 1864; State geologist of Kansas, 1865–66; professor of agriculture in the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Missouri, 1870; professor of botany, comparative anatomy, and physiology in medical school of University of Missouri, 1872; professor of natural sciences and dean of the Agricultural and Mechanical College up to 1882; State inspector of mines of Montana, 1888–89.

Biogr. American Geologist, XXIV, July, 1899, pp. 1–6.

TAYLOR, RICHARD COWLING. Geologist and mining engineer.

Born in Hinton, Suffolk, England, January 18, 1789; died in Philadelphia, Pa., October 26, 1851. Came to America about 1830.

TESCHEMACHER, JAMES ENGLEBERT. Paleobotanist.

Born in Nottingham, England, June 11, 1790; died in Boston, Mass., 1853. Came to America February 7, 1832, and settled in Boston. A business man with scientific tendencies.

THOMPSON, ZADOCK. Clergyman.

Born in Bridgewater, Vt., May 23, 1796; died in Burlington, Vt., January 19, 1856. First became noted as a compiler of almanacs and from his publication of a gazetteer of Vermont, which appeared in 1826. Assistant on State geological survey of Vermont, 1845–1847. State naturalist of Vermont, 1853–1856.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, Dec., 1904, pp. 262–267.
Am. Journ. Sci., XXII, 1856, pp. 44–49.
G. H. Perkins. American Geologist, XXIX, No. 2, 1902, pp. 65–71.

TRASK, JOHN BOARDMAN. Surgeon.

Born in Roxbury, Mass., 1824; died in San Francisco, Cal., July 3, 1879. Educated at Yale. One of the charter members of the Academy of Natural Sciences of San Francisco. Geologist on boundary survey between Mexico, California, and Nevada; State geologist of California in early fifties. Assistant surgeon of volunteers in civil war.

A. W. Vogdes, San Diego, Cal,

TROOST, GERARD. Chemist and geologist.

Born in Bois-le-Duc, Holland, March 15, 1776; died in Nashville, Tenn., August 14, 1850. Came to the United States in 1810 and was one of the founders of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences in 1812; chosen its first president. In 1821, was appointed professor of mineralogy in Philadelphia Museum, and professor of chemistry in the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy. Professor of chemistry, geology, and mineralogy in University of Nashville, Tenn., 1828–1850. State geologist of Tennessee, 1831–1850.

Biogr. Appleton's Cylo. of Amer. Biog.
L. C. Glenn. Amer. Geol., XXXV, No. 2, 1905, pp. 72–94.

TUOMEY, MICHAEL. Geologist.

Born in Cork, Ireland, September 29 (St. Michael's Day), 1805; died in University, Ala., March 30, 1857. Came to America when about 17 years of age and became a teacher on the eastern shore of Virginia, but afterwards went to Troy, N. Y., and was graduated from Rensselaer Institute. State geologist of South Carolina in 1844. In 1847, was appointed professor of geology, mineralogy, and agricultural chemistry in the University of Alabama, and in 1848, was appointed State geologist without salary. In 1854, relinquished his professorship at the University in order that he might give all his attention to the survey.

Biogr. Amer. Geol., XX, Oct. 1897, pp. 205–212.

TYSON, PHILIP THOMAS. Chemist.

Born in Baltimore, Md., June 23, 1799; died there December 16, 1877. State agricultural chemist of Maryland 1858.

VAN RENSSELAER, STEPHEN. Patron.

Born in New York City, November 7, 1765; died in Albany, N. Y., January 26, 1839. Established the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute in Troy, N. Y., in 1826. A general patron of the sciences and the pioneer of American geological surveys, Eaton's early work on the geology of the Erie Canal region being carried on at his expense.

Biogr. Amer. Jour. Sci., XXXVI, 1839, pp. 156–164.

VANUXEM, LARDNER. Chemist and stratigrapher.

Born in Philadelphia, Pa., July 23, 1792; died in Bristol, Pa., January 25, 1848. Professor of chemistry and geology in Columbia College, S. C., from 1820 to 1826. In charge of third district New York survey from 1836–1842.

Biogr. Pop. Sci. Monthly, April, 1895, pp. 833–840.

WACHSMUTH, CHARLES. Paleontologist.

Born in Hanover, Germany, September 13, 1829; died in Burlington, Iowa, February 7, 1896. Came to America in 1852 and entered upon a mercantile career, but going West for his health took up scientific pursuits, in which he continued until his death. For several years assistant to Louis Agassiz in the Museum of Comparative Zoology.

Biogr. Chas. R. Keyes in American Geologist, XVII, 1896, pp. 131–136.

WALCOTT, CHARLES DOOLITTLE.

Born in New York Mills, N. Y., March 31, 1850. Became assistant, New York State survey, 1876. Connected with U. S. Geological Survey, as geologist and paleontologist since 1879, and as Director since 1894. From January, 1897, to July, 1898, Acting Assistant Secretary of Smithsonian Institution. The Cambrian rocks and faunas of the United States have been his especial subjects of research.

WHITE, CHARLES ABIATHAR. Paleontologist and stratigrapher.

Born in North Dighton, Mass., January 26, 1826. Graduated from Iowa College. State geologist of Iowa, 1866–1870; professor Iowa State University, 1867–1873; professor Bowdoin College, Maine, 1873–1875; geologist and paleontologist to various United States Government surveys, 1874–1892. Connected with the U. S. National Museum since 1876.

WHITE, ISRAEL C. Geologist.

Born in Monongalia County, W. Va., November 1, 1848. Graduated from West Virginia University, 1872, A. M.; assistant geologist, Second Geological Survey, Pennsylvania, 1875–1884; on U. S. Geological Survey, 1884–1888; professor of geology, West Virginia University, 1877–1892. Specialist in coal, petroleum, and natural gas. State geologist of West Virginia since 1897.

WHITFIELD, ROBERT PARR. Paleontologist.

Born in New Hartford, Oneida County, N. Y., May 27, 1828. Assistant in paleontology on New York State natural history survey, 1856–1876; U. S. Geological Survey, 1872; teacher and professor of geology, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, N. Y., 1872–1878; since 1877, curator of geological department, American Museum Natural History.

WHITNEY, JOSIAH DWIGHT. Geologist.

Born in Northampton, Mass., November 23, 1819; died in New London, N. H., August 19, 1896. Graduated at Yale, 1839. In 1840–1842, assistant to Jackson in geological survey of New Hampshire. In 1847–1851, on survey of mineral lands of Lake Superior district. In 1855, appointed State chemist of Iowa and professor in State University. In 1858–59, associated with James Hall on geological survey of Iowa. In 1858–1860, with Hall on geological survey of Wisconsin. In 1860–1874, State geologist of California. From 1865 to his death, the Sturgis Hooper professor of geology, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

WHITTLESEY, CHARLES. Stratigraphical geologist and archæologist.

Born in Southington, Conn., October 4, 1808; died in Cleveland, Ohio, October 18, 1886. Graduated from West Point in 1831; resigned from army at close of Black Hawk War, and from that time to 1837 practiced law. In 1837–1839, assistant to W. W. Mather in survey of Ohio, acting as topographer, geographer, and geologist. In 1844, geologist in exploration of copper region of Michigan. In 1847–1851, employed in United States survey of country around Lake Superior and upper Mississippi with reference to mines. In 1849, 1850, 1858, explored valley of Menominee River and north shore of Lake Superior. In 1848, connected with D. D. Owen's survey of northern Wisconsin. In 1858–59, made geological surveys of Wisconsin, and in 1860, assisted James Hall in survey of same State. From 1867 to time of death, devoted to promotion of Western Reserve and Northern Ohio Historical Society, of which he was president; voluminous writer on geology and archæology of Northwest.

Biogr. A. Winchell, American Geologist, IV, 1889, pp. 257–68.

WIGHT, O. W. Physician.

State geologist of Wisconsin 1875, succeeding Lapham, and himself succeeded by Chamberlain. Made but one report.

WINCHELL, ALEXANDER. Geologist and educator.

Born in Northeast, N. Y., December 31, 1824; died in Ann Arbor, Mich., February 19, 1891. Began life as a teacher. On October 5, 1850, took charge of an academy at Newbern, Greene County, Ala. In 1851, opened the Mesopotamia Female Seminary in Eutaw, Ala. In 1853, became president of the Masonic University at Selma, Ala. On November 16, 1853, was appointed professor of physics and civil engineering in the University of Michigan, entering upon his duties January 24, 1854. In 1855, became professor of geology, zoology, and botany in the university. State geologist of Michigan, 1859–1861 and 1869–1871. Chancellor of Syracuse University, 1873–74; professor of geology, Syracuse University, 1874–75. Connected with Vanderbilt University, in Nashville, Tenn., 1875–1878. Professor of geology and paleontology in Ann Arbor, Mich., 1879–1891. Professor Winchell was one of the best known of popular writers and lecturers in geology.

Bull. Geol. Soc. of America, III, 1891, pp. 3–13, 56–59.
Amer. Geol., IX, 1892, pp. 71–148.

WINCHELL, NEWTON HORACE. Geologist.

Born in Northeast, N. Y., December 17, 1839. Employed on geological survey of Michigan in 1860; graduated from University of Michigan, 1866; assistant State geologist of Michigan, 1869–70; assistant geological survey Ohio, 1870–1872; editor American Geologist, Minneapolis; professor of mineralogy and geology, University of Michigan, and State geologist, 1872–1900.

WING, AUGUSTUS. Clergyman and teacher.

Born in Rochester, Vt., November 19, 1808; died in Whiting, Vt., January 19, 1876. Educated as a clergyman, but soon left the profession to become a teacher and investigator. Published practically nothing, but made very exhaustive studies of the limestone, slates, and quartzites of the Otter Creek Valley, with a view of settling their geological age. His results were communicated to Dana, who utilized them in his papers upon the Taconic question.

Biogr. American Geologist, XXVIII, 1901, pp. 1–8.

WISLIZENUS, FREDERICK ADOLPHUS. Physician.

Born in Koenigsee, in Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Germany, May, 1810; died in St. Louis, Mo., September 22, 1889. Graduated from University of Zurich in 1834. Came to America in 1837, settling in St. Louis. His geological work chiefly result of expedition into Mexico, report of which appeared in Washington in 1848.

WORTHEN, AMOS HENRY. Paleontologist.

Born in Bradford, Orange County, Vt., October 31, 1813; died in Warsaw, Ill., May 6, 1888. Began life as a merchant at Warsaw, Ill. Assistant to J. G. Norwood, State geologist of Illinois, in 1853. Assistant to Prof. James Hall, State geologist of Iowa, 1855–1857. State geologist of Illinois from 1858–1888, and curator of the State Natural History Museum from 1877. His work was mainly of a paleontological and stratigraphic nature, and related principally to the Carboniferous series.

Biogr. Chas. A. White, Mem. Nat. Acad. Sci., Nov. 1893, pp. 341–362.
E. O. Ulrich, American Geologist, Aug. 1888, pp. 114–117.

WRIGHT, CHARLES E. Geologist.

Born in Copenhagen, Lewis County, N. Y., October 7, 1843; died in Marquette, Mich., March 22, 1888. Began life as a civil engineer, afterwards turning his attention to geology and mining engineering. Commissioner of mineral statistics for Michigan, 1876–1883. State geologist of Michigan, 1884–1888. His work was limited mainly to the mining regions of northern Michigan.

Biogr. American Geologist, II, 1888, pp. 307–312.

WRIGHT, GEORGE FREDERICK. Clergyman and glacial geologist.

Born in Whitehall, N. Y., January 22, 1838. By profession a clergyman, and in 1871 pastor of a Congregational church in Andover, Mass. In 1881, professor of New Testament Exegesis in Oberlin Theological Seminary. Has written extensively on glacial subjects, his most pretentious work being his Ice Age in North America.

WURTZ, HENRY. Chemist.

Born in eastern Pennsylvania, June 5, 1828. Graduated from Princeton in 1848. In 1851, became instructor in Yale scientific school. In 1853–1855, chemist of the geological survey of New Jersey.

WYMAN, JEFFRIES. Anatomist and vertebrate paleontologist.

Born in Chelmsford, Mass., August 11, 1814; died in Bethlehem, N. H., September 4, 1874. Graduated from Harvard in 1833 and studied and practiced medicine. Professor of anatomy and physiology at Hampden Sidney College at Richmond, Va., 1843–1847. From 1847 to time of his death, Hersey professor of anatomy at Harvard College, Cambridge.

Biogr. A. S. Packard, Nat. Acad. Sci., Biog. Memoirs, II, 1886.

INDEX.

Page.

Acadian geology, J. W. Dawson 446
Third edition 573
Adams, C. B., assistant geologist, survey of Vermont 469
Elements of Geology 392
sketch of 392, 689
views on Taconic 665
work in Vermont 391
Æolian limestone, name proposed 472
Agassiz, Louis, Études sur les Glaciers 364
Physical characters of Lake Superior 415
sketch of 417, 689
views on glacial drift 416
subsidence and deposition 508
Aiken, E. A., assistant, geological survey of Virginia 341
Aiken, William, ideas on mountain uplift. 321
Akerly, Samuel, geology of the Hudson River 249
on geology of Dutchess County, N. Y 223
origin of alluvion 223
sketch of 689
Alabama, survey under E. A. Smith 565
Michael Tuomey .. 408
Aldrich, Truman H., sketch of 689
Alexander, Caleb, on supposed volcanoes in Connecticut 209
Alexander, J. H., work in Maryland 321
Alger, Francis, geology of Nova Scotia 288
sketch of 689
Allegheny Mountains, structure of 513
Allen, G. N., botanist Hayden survey 595
American continent, geological history of 609-614
Geological Society, formed 239
officers of .. 239
Geology, Ebenezer Emmons 458
Journal of Science, founding of 215, 228
Mineralogical Journal, founding of 223
Ami, H. H., assistant on geological survey of Canada 549
Analytical chemistry, early condition of ... 210
Anchisaurus colurus, finding of 632
Andrews, Ebenezer B., assistant on geological survey of Ohio 541
sketch of 690
views on origin of drift 544
Antecedent valleys, term first used 566

Page.

Antisell, Thomas, sketch of 454, 690
work on Pacific Railroad surveys 453
Appalachian chain, physical structure of .. 370
structure, views of Rogers brothers on 493
Appendix A.—Development of the geological column 677
B.—Biographical sketches of geologists 687
Aqueo-igneous action 318
Arkansas, geology, geography, etc., by H. R. Schoolcraft 240
opposition to geological survey. 483
work of D. D. Owen and Richard Owen 482
Artesian wells in arid lands 247
Ashburner, Charles A., assistant, geological survey of Pennsylvania 582
sketch of 690
Ashburner, William, assistant, geological survey of California 515
Atwater, Caleb, on mammoth bones in Ohio. 249
Auriferous gravels, J. D. Whitney 578

Bad Lands, fossils, first systematic account of 413
second expedition of F. V. Hayden 591
work of Meek and Hayden in .. 585
Bakewell's geology, first American edition. 292
second American edition 316
Bald Mountain, section after C. D. Walcott. 674
Ball, John, views on geology of Rocky Mountains 319
Bannister, H. M., assistant, geological survey of Illinois 496
Hayden survey 597
Barnes, Daniel H., sketch of 690
suggestions of faulting . 264
Barrande, views on Taconic 667
Barris, Willis H., sketch of 690
Base level of erosion, term first used 567
Basin Range, named by G. K. Gilbert 616
structure of 617
Batty, J. H., naturalist, Hayden survey 599
Beale, John, assistant to Owen 413
Beaman, John H., meteorologist, Hayden surveys 593
Bechler, G. R., topographer, Hayden survey 596, 598

Page.

Beck, Lewis Caleb, sketch of 690
Beckwith, John, views on weathering of trap rock 255
Beecher, C. E., assistant, geological survey of Pennsylvania 582
Belknap, Jeremy, paper by 209
Bell, Robert, assistant, geological survey of Canada 517, 549
Benton, E. R., views on Richmond bowlder train 405
Benton, Thomas H., views on supposed human footprints in stone 264
Big Bone Lick 213
Bigsby, John J., sketch of 690
work in Canada 265
Billings, Elkanah, assistant, geological survey of Canada .. 499, 517, 549
sketch of 690
views on Taconic .. 666, 667, 668
Binney, Amos, sketch of 690
views on the loess 398
Black hills, geology of 578
Warren's expedition to 587
work of W. P. Jenny and Henry Newton 568
N. H. Winchell 567
Blake, William P., on physical geology and geography of California 437
sketch of 691
views on age of gold-bearing strata 516
work on Pacific Railroad surveys 449, 452
Bonneville, Lake, described by G. K. Gilbert 617
Bonney, T. G., views on Eozoonal structure 644
Booth, James C., assistant, geological survey of Pennsylvania ... 490
geological survey of Delaware 348
sketch of 691
Boston, geology of, by J. W. Webster 283
Boyd, George W., assistant, geological survey of Virginia 341
Boye, M. H., assistant, geological survey of Pennsylvania 490
Bradley, Frank H., assistant, geological survey of Indiana. 548
geologist on Hayden survey 596
sketch of 691
Bramby, R. S., sketch of 691
Branner, John C., assistant, geological survey of Pennsylvania .. 582
reference to Owen's survey of Arkansas 483
sketch of 691
Brazil, work of C. F. Hartt and Orestes St. John 529
Brewer, William H., assistant on geological survey of California 515, 516
sketch of 691
Briggs, Caleb, assistant, geological survey of Virginia 341

Page.

Briggs, Caleb, sketch of 691
work in Ohio 332
Broadhead, Garland C., assistant, geological survey of Illinois. 496
assistant State geologist of Missouri 438
geologist on survey of Missouri. 555
sketch of 691
Brooks, T. B., sketch of 537, 691
State geologist of Michigan .. 536
Brown, A. E., topographer, Hayden survey. 596
Brown, Ryland T., State geologist of Indiana 433
Brown, Samuel, description of cave on Crooked Creek 224
Bruce, Archibald, American Mineralogical Journal 223
sketch of 692
Buckley, Samuel B., sketch of 692
work in Texas 509
Burbank on Eozoonal structure 643
Burck, Adolf, topographer, Hayden survey. 596
Burlington limestone, subdivisions of 534

Calciferous slate, name first used 270
California, coal, by J. B. Trask 437
physical geology and geography of 437
survey under J. D. Whitney 515
Trask's work in 435
Tyson's work in 427
Canada, survey under William E. Logan. 384, 517
A. R. C. Selwyn 549
Carll, J. F., assistant, geological survey of Pennsylvania 582
Carpenter, W. B., views on *Eozoon canadense* 638
Carr, Ezra S., survey of Wisconsin 472
Carrington, E. C., zoologist, Hayden survey 592
Carter, H. J., views on *Eozoon canadense* 642
Cass, Lewis 242
Caswell, J. H., petographic work in Black Hills 569
Catbush, James, on Blue Earth of New Jersey 223
Catlin, George, views on geology 557
Catskill Mountains, geology of 236
Caves, formation of, views of A. Eaton 252
Chamberlin, Thomas C., assistant, survey of Wisconsin 570
sketch of 692
survey of Wisconsin 571
Chance, Henry M., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
sketch of 692
Charleston, S. C., geology of 409
Chauvenet, Regis, assistant, survey of Missouri 555
views on origin of iron ore 556
Cheever, B. H., assistant, Hayden survey .. 592
China, work of Raphael Pumpelly in 522
Chippewa land district, work of Owen in .. 411

Page.

Chittenden, George M., assistant, Hayden survey 599
Christy, David, geological observations 397
Church, John A., geologist, Wheeler survey 616
sketch of 692
Cincinnati uplift, age of 542
views of Edward Orton .. 546
Claypole, Edward W., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
sketch of 692
Cleaveland, Parker, fossils found by 222
sketch of 226, 692
Treatise on Mineralogy . 225
views on inclination of strata 389
Cliff limestone 353
Climatic changes, by J. D. Whitney 579
Coal in California, views of Trask 437
formation of, by H. D. Rogers 372
iron pipe found in 249
Manual of, by Peter Lesley 461
of North Carolina, age of 430
origin of, J. D. Dana 426
J. W. Dawson 447, 576
Abraham Gesner 338
C. T. Jackson 360
H. D. Rogers 492
J. Van Rensselaer 279
period, atmosphere of 390
supposed occurrence near Phippsburg, Me 347
Coast Range, age of, views of J. D. Whitney . 515
Collett, John, assistant, survey of Indiana . 548
sketch of 692
Colorado, Ives' expedition up 477
origin of canyon of 477
Powell's exploration of Canyon of 566
work of F. V. Hayden 592
Concretionary structure, origin of 392
Concretions, origin of, Edw. Hitchcock 315
Conkling, Alfred R., geologist, Wheeler survey 616
sketch of 693
Connecticut, geological and mineralogical survey of 329
Connecticut River, geology of, E. Hitchcock 268
Connecticut sandstone, age of 309
Connecticut valley, fossil footprints 625
intrusive trap of 389
Conrad, Timothy A., distribution of the Eocene 320
ideas on drift 357
Medial Tertiary of North America 396
sketch of 355, 693
Tertiary of North America 306
views on evolution ... 355
expansion of rocks by crystallization 397
work in Florida 368

Page.

Conrad, Timothy A., work on the Tertiary fossils 354
Consequent valleys, term first used 566
Contraction of earth, results of 399
Cook, George H., assistant to William Kitchell 460
sketch of 524, 693
survey of New Jersey . 523
views on subsidence of coast 524
Cooper, Thomas, sketch of 261, 693
views concerning volcanoes 261
Cope, Edward D., paleontologist, Wheeler survey 616
sketch of 693
views on lignitic group . 650
work on geological survey of Indiana 548
work with Hayden surveys 594, 598
Copper and silver ores of Lake Superior, origin of 418
deposits of Lake Superior, value of, W. H. Keating 276
views of H. R. Schoolcraft . 243
(native), finding of large boulder .. 244
origin of, views of T. C. Chamberlin . 572
Raphael Pumpelly 538
Coral growth, views of Couthouy and Dana . 373
Joseph Le Conte 464
islands, views of J. D. Dana 423
Cordilleras, Clarence King's use of word ... 610
Cornelius, Elias, on origin of Natural Bridge 224
sketch of 693
Cotting, John R., geological work in Georgia 335
sketch of 693
views as to value of fossils 336
Coulter, John M., assistant, survey of Indiana 548
botanist, Hayden survey . 596
Couthouy, Joseph P., sketch of 693
views on coral growth . 373
Cox, Edward T., assistant to D. D. Owen ... 443
assistant, survey of Illinois 496
sketch of 694
views on glacial period .. 548
work in Indiana 548
Cozzens, Issachar, geology of New York Island 385
sketch of 694
Crandall, A. R., assistant, survey of Kentucky 565
Crystallization of rocks, by T. A. Conrad ... 397
Currey, R. O., sketch of geology of Tennessee 458
Currier, A. O., assistant, survey of Michigan 536
Curtis, Josiah, naturalist, Hayden survey .. 596
Cuvier and Brongniant, map of Paris 217
Cuvier's theory of the earth 226, 230

Dale, Thomas N., sketch of 694

Page.

Dall, William H., sketch of 694
Dalson, A. A., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 490
Dana, James D., on coral growth 373
geological results of earth's contraction .. 399
grand outline features of the earth 399
metamorphism 388
origin of coal 426
plan of development of North America 464
subaerial erosion 435
the Taconic 666, 669, 671
volcanoes and coral islands 423
sketch of 400, 694
work with the United States exploring expedition 422
Dana, J. F., mineralogy of Boston 228
Dana, Samuel L., mineralogy of Boston 228
sketch of 694
Daniels, Edward, survey of Wisconsin ... 442, 472
Dark ages of geology 287
Dawson, George M., assistant, survey of Canada 549
sketch of 695
Dawson's Acadian geology 446, 573
Dawson, John W., sketch of 577, 695
views on *Eozoon canadense*. 636, 637, 640
glaciation 521
origin of coal 447, 576
the drift ... 573-575
the Taconic .. 675
work in Nova Scotia 446
Deane, James, sketch of 633, 695
views on fossil footprints .. 625, 627
Deane, Samuel, paper by 209
Delaware, geological survey of, by Booth .. 348
Deluge, the 238, 239, 260, 293, 298, 310, 316
Denudation and erosion, J. P. Lesley's views on 567
De Saussure, reference to 208
Desor, E., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania. 490
on the drift 422
sketch of 422
Devonian age of Catskill sandstone recognized 236
Dewey, Charles, views on glaciation 365
Dewey, Chester, geology of western Massachusetts 269
sketch of 695
De Witt, Benjamin, on origin of drift 211
Dinornis of New Zealand 628
d'Invilliers, E. V., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
Dobson, Peter, drift bowlders described ... 273
Dolomites, origin of, views of Edward Hitchcock 313
Douglas, C. C., assistant to D. Houghton ... 360
Drift, the:
views of Louis Agassiz 416
E. B. Andrews 544

Drift, the—Continued. Page.
views of T. A. Conrad 357
E. T. Cox 548
J. W. Dawson 573
E. Desor 422
Chester Dewey 365
Benjamin De Witt 211
Peter Dobson 273
Amos Eaton 236
Ebenezer Emmons 378
Foster and Whitney 419
Abraham Gesner 338
James Hall 365, 380
H. H. Hayden 256
E. W. Hilgard 530, 561
C. H. Hitchcock 512
Edward Hitchcock 310, 361, 367, 462, 470, 471
C. T. Jackson 347, 348, 359
W. H. Keating 276
W. E. Logan 518
W. W. Mather 375, 395
S. L. Mitchill 230, 232
J. S. Newberry 512, 542, 543, 545
D. D. Owen 413
H. D. Rogers 494
Benjamin Tappan 286
Whitney and Foster 419
A. H. Worthen 497
See also GLACIATION.
Drift period, recurrence of, first suggestion. 512
Driftless area of Wisconsin 473
Ducatel, J. T., sketch and portrait of 322, 695
work in Maryland 321
Dutchess County, N. Y., geology of 223
Dutton, Clarence E., sketch of 695
work on high plateaus 621
Dwight, William B., sketch of 695

Eakins, L. G., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
Eames, H. E., work in Minnesota 530
Early geological publications and reprints of 260
Earthquake of 1811–12 in Mississippi Valley 280
Earthquakes, views of Isaac Lea 280
Eaton, Amos, agricultural survey of Rensselaer County, N. Y 254
characteristics of 300
claims made regarding geological work 299
conjectures respecting formation of earth 237
Geological text-book 295
Geological transverse section 235
geology of Erie Canal 269
the Rocky Mountains 319
Index to the geology of the Northern States 234
on formation of salt 270
origin of drift 236
valley formation 270
second edition of index 251
sketch of 234, 695
transverse segments 297
views on formation of iron ore and caves ... 252

Page.

Eaton, Amos, views on soil fertility 300
relative to origin of earth..... 251
Eatonian era, 1820–1829..... 251
Elliott, Henry W., artist on Hayden surveys. 592
Elrod, M. N., assistant, survey of Indiana... 548
Emerson, J. H., assistant, survey of Michigan 536
Emmons, Ebenezer, American Geology..... 458
manual of geology..... 281
rock classification 431
sketch of..... 281, 696
the Taconic theory .. 378, 659
views on drift..... 378
soil fertility.. 432
work in New York..... 377
North Carolina 430
Emmons, S. F., geologist, fortieth parallel survey..... 608, 609
sketch of 696
Emory, W. H., Mexican boundary survey .. 460
Endlich, Frederic M., geologist, Hayden survey..... 599, 600
sketch of..... 696
Engelmann, George, sketch of 696
Engelmann, Henry, assistant, Illinois survey 496
assistant to Swallow.. 438
work in Utah..... 502
Eozoon canadense, the..... 635
first mention of 518, 535
in Bavarian limestone 640
views of T. G. Bonney 644
Burbank and Perry..... 644
W. B. Carpenter 638, 640, 642
H. J. Carter..... 642
J. W. Dawson 636, 643
J. W. Gregory..... 645
C. W. Gümbel 640
T. Sterry Hunt..... 639
H. J. Johnston-Lavis 645
William King..... 639, 641
W. E. Logan 635
Carl Moebius 642
T. H. Rowney 639, 641
Max Schultze..... 642
Ferdinand von Hochstetter 640
Era of national surveys 551
Era of State surveys, fifth decade..... 551
first decade 295
fourth decade..... 503
second decade 363
third decade..... 429
Erie Canal, geology of contiguous region .. 269
Erosion and uplift 513
by sandblast..... 452
of Black Hills 569
Grand Canyon..... 477
High Plateaus 621
Uinta Range..... 620
Wasatch Range..... 612
See also GLACIATION and DRIFT.
views of J. D. Dana..... 435
J. W. Dawson 522
Amos Eaton..... 252, 270
G. W. Featherstonhaugh . 324

Page.

Erosion, views of James Hall..... 384
F. V. Hayden..... 257
G. E. Hayes 358
Edward Hitchcock. 311, 367, 435
O. P. Hubbard 435
J. P. Lesley 567
J. W. Powell 566
H. D. Rogers 326, 328
Evans, John, assistant to Owen 413
sketch of..... 696
work in the Bad Lands, 1853 . 585
Washington and Oregon 455
Evolution, Conrad's views on..... 355

Fairholme, views on gorge of Niagara..... 327
Fall line of rivers, early recognition of. ..208, 214
Faulting, early suggestions regarding 264
Featherstonhaugh, G. W., his work, how regarded..... 324
Monthly American Journal of Geology..... 301
sketch of..... 302, 696
survey of the elevated country. 323
survey of 1835... 325
Field, Roswell, views on fossil footprints .. 632
Finch, John, memoir on Connecticut sandstones 266
subdivisions of the Tertiary.. 266
Florida, work of Conrad in..... 368
Footprints in limestone 262
Ford, A. L., mineralogist, Hayden surveys. 593
Ford, W. S., views on the Taconic 674
Formation of the earth, views of A. Eaton. 237
Fortieth parallel survey under Clarence King 607
Fossils, first attempt at correlation by means of 288
Fossil footprints of Connecticut Valley 625
views of Mantell, Richard Owen, Benj. Silliman, Murchison, and Lyell .. 627
Fossils, in coal measures of Nova Scotia.... 446
Connecticut River sandstone 268
mode of naming 253
value of, for purpose of correlation. 287
views of J. R. Cotting..... 336
Amos Eaton 300
Abraham Gesner..... 337
Jacob Green 305
Edward Hitchcock 313
D. D. Owen 350
Richard Owen 507
J. M. Safford..... 457
Gerard Troost..... 304
Lardner Vanuxem..... 291
Foster, John W., sketch of 697
work in Michigan..... 415, 417
Ohio..... 332
Foster and Whitney on geology of Lake Superior region 419
origin of drift 419
Fourche Cove region, work of W. Byrd Powell..... 373
Franklin, Benjamin, theories of earth's origin 213

Page.

Frazer, John F., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 490
Frazer, Persifor, asssistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
metallurgist, Hayden survey 592
sketch of 697
Freeman, H. C., assistant, Illinois survey .. 496
Frogs, live, buried in rocks 245
Fuller, C. B., zoologist, survey of Maine ... 511

Gabb, William M., assistant, survey of California 515
sketch of 697
Gage, J. R., assistant, survey of Missouri ... 555
Galena limestone 496
Gannett, Henry, astronomer, Hayden survey 596
topographer, Hayden survey 598
Geest 253
Geikie, Archibald, quoted 287
Gems, origin of, by Schoolcraft 244
Genesis and geology, comparison by Benjamin Silliman 317-318
Genth, F. A., sketch of 697
Geological column, development of 677, 679
map, first American, by Maclure. 217
Society of Pennsylvania, organization of 320
publications of 321
survey, first at public expense .. 266
survey of Pennsylvania 344
Text-book, by Amos Eaton 295
Geology, first recognition of, by the General Government 323
of the Globe, by Hitchcock 463
Key to, by Richard Owen 474
Georgia, geological work of John R. Cotting. 335
work of George Little 552
Gesner, Abraham, sketch of 339, 697
views on origin of drift . 338
iron ore. 337
the deluge 339
value of fossils for correlation purposes 337
uplift of strata. 337
work in New Brunswick. 353
Nova Scotia 336
Gibbs, Col. George, on iron ores of Franconia, N. H 223
supposed volcanoes in Connecticut 209
Gibbs, George, jr., sketch of 697
work in Washington 456
Gibbs, Wolcott, assistant to Jackson in Michigan 415
Gibson, John B., on trap rocks of Conewago Hills 254
sketch of 697

Page.

Gilbert, Grove K., assistant, survey of Ohio 541
Basin Range named .. 616
chief geologist, Wheeler survey 616
sketch of 698
work in Henry Mountains 622
Gilmer, F. W., on origin of Natural Bridge. 224
Gilmore, Robert, catalogue of minerals of Baltimore, Md 224
Glacial drift, views of Peter Dobson 273
motion 581
Glaciation, two periods suggested 463
views of J. W. Dawson 521
J. D. Whitney 580
Glaciers, Agassiz's studies of 364
and glaciation. *See* DRIFT.
Glenn, J. W., State geologist of Texas 509
Godon, S., mineralogical map of Maryland. 214
observations 222
Gold-bearing rocks of California, age of 516
Goodale, George L., botanist on Maine survey 511
Grand Canyon of Colorado, exploration of, by J. W. Powell 566
Gray, Alonzo, elements of geology 392
Gray, Asa, with Hayden survey 602
Great Lakes and sources of the Mississippi, expedition to 274
Green, H. A., assistant, Illinois survey 496
Green, Jacob, monograph of Trilobites 305
sketch of 698
views as to value of fossils .. 305
Gregory, J. W., views on Eozoonal structure. 645
Grinnell, George B., paleontologist, Ludlow expedition 568
sketch of 698
Gümbel, C. W., finding of Eozoonal structures in Bavaria 640
Güttard, referred to 207
Guy, W. E., assistant, survey of Missouri ... 555
Gypsum of Iowa, age of 533
origin of, by J. W. Dawson 576
D. D. Owen 413

Hafner, Ludwig (*see also* Lewis Harper) ... 440
Hager, Albert D., geologist, Vermont survey 469
sketch of 698
work in Missouri 554
Hague, Arnold, assistant, fortieth parallel survey 608, 609
sketch of 698
Hague, J. D., sketch of 698
Haldeman, Samuel S., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania ... 490
sketch of 698
views on Taconic . 665
Hall, C. E., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
Hall, James (clergyman), sketch of 699
views on weathering of trap rocks 255
Hall, James, connection with survey of Canada 517

Page

Hall, James, criticism of, by Meek 467
on parallelism of Paleozoic deposits 419
westward thinning of sedimentary rocks 465
paleontologist, New Jersey survey 460
report on Lake Superior rocks 419
sketch 381, 698
survey of Iowa 465
Wisconsin 472
views on drift and erosion ... 380
Niagara 384
sedimentation and mountain building 499, 502
Taconic 663, 665, 671
work in connection with fortieth parallel survey 609
New York 379
Ohio 383
Hall, S. R., assistant, Vermont survey 391
Harlan, Richard, sketch of 699
Harper, Lewis, sketch of 699
work in Mississippi 440
Harrington, B. J., assistant, survey of Canada 549
Harrington, M. W., assistant, survey of Michigan 536
Hartt, Charles F., sketch of 699
work in Brazil 529
Hawaiian volcanoes, views of J. D. Dana .. 423
Hawn, Frederick, assistant, survey of Kansas 527
assistant to Swallow 437
Permian controversy 485
sketch of 699
Hay, Robert, sketch of 699
Hayden, C. B 341
Hayden, F. V., appointed United States geologist 592
early views on lignitic strata. 647
on mountain uplift 590
Triassic in Kansas and Nebraska 487
second expedition to the Bad Lands 591
sketch of 604, 699
summary of early work .. 589
surveys in Colorado and New Mexico 592, 598
Idaho and Wyoming, 1877 602
Montana and the Yellowstone Park, 1871 ..... 595, 596
Nebraska 592
Wyoming ... 592–593, 603
views on lignitic group. 653, 656
with Meek in Kansas 587
Raynolds's expedition 589

Page.

Hayden, F. V., with Warren in the Black Hills Sioux country .. 586
work in Bad Lands, 1853–66 585
on the Upper Missouri River 586
Hayden, H. H., geological essays 256
views on drift 256
sketch of 259, 699
Hayes, G. E., geology of western New York 357
Haymond, Rufus, assistant, survey of Indiana 548
Headley, C. B., assistant, survey of Michigan 536
Henry Mountains, work of G. K. Gilbert .. 622
Herring, Adolph, topographer, Hayden survey 596
Higgins, James, work in Maryland 428
Hildreth, Samuel P., sketch of 700
work in Ohio 330, 332
Hilgard, Eugene W., assistant geologist of Mississippi 441, 483
sketch of 700
State geologist of Mississippi 483
work in Louisiana ... 635
at Petite Anse .. 561
views on drift 530, 561
Hind, Henry Y., sketch of 700
work in Winnipeg country 499
Hitchcock, Charles H., chemist, survey of Vermont 469
sketch of 700
State geologist of Maine 511
views on Taconic .. 674
Hitchcock, Edward, description of Richmond bowlder train 393
drift phenomena of North America 367
first geological paper. 233
geology of region contiguous to Connecticut River 268
the globe. 463
illustrations of surface geology 462
on fossil footprints. 625, 630
origin of dolomite 313
gneisses and granites 308–309
overturned folds . 314
trap tufa of Connecticut Valley. 389
value of fossils ... 313
remarks on the geology of Massachusetts 233
report on Marcy expedition 434

Page.

Hitchcock, Edward, sketch of 700
survey of Massachusetts 307
Vermont. 469
views on distorted pebbles 315
drift 274, 471
erosive power of rivers 310
inversion of strata 471
living animals in rocks 472
metamorphism and elongation of quartz pebbles .. 470, 510
origin of concretions 315
the Taconic. 663, 668
Hobbs, B. C., assistant, survey of Indiana .. 548
Hodge, James T., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 490
collections by 355
sketch of 700
Holl, H. D., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 490
Holmes, Ezekiel, natural-history survey of Maine 511
Holmes, F. S., geology of Charleston, S. C.. 409
Holmes, William H., artist, Hayden survey. 596
geologist, Hayden survey 603
sketch of 700
Hooker, Sir Joseph, with Hayden survey .. 602
Hopkins, F. V., geology of Louisiana 558
Hot springs, origin of, by D. D. Owen 482
Houghton, C., mineralogist, on Maine survey 511
Houghton, Douglass, sketch of 361, 701
work in Michigan ... 360
Howell, Edwin E., assistant, Wheeler survey 616
sketch of 701
work on Wheeler survey 618
Howley, James P., work in Newfoundland. 520
Hubbard, Bela, assistant to Houghton 360
sketch of 701
Hubbard, Oliver P., on rock decay 435
sketch of 701
Hudson River, geology of 249
origin of bed 299
Palisades, origin of 377
Human footprints (supposed) in sandstone, views of Schoolcraft, D. D. Owen, Mantell, and others 262–264
Humphreys, A. A., fortieth parallel survey. 607
Hunt, T. Sterry, assistant, survey of Canada 517, 549
survey of Pennsylvania 582
Vermont survey 391
sketch of 701
views on *Eozoon canadense* 636

Page.

Hunt, T. Sterry, views on Taconic 666
Hutton, James, reference to 208
Hyatt, Alpheus, sketch of 701

Ichnology of New England, by Edward Hitchcock 631
Illinois, geology of, by C. U. Shepard 340
survey of, by D. D. Owen 351
work of Amos H. Worthen 496
J. G. Norwood 432
A. H. Worthen, State geologist of. 433
Illustrations of surface geology 462
Inclination of rocks indicative of age 291
views of Jackson 359
strata, cause of 277
views of Hitchcock, Cleaveland, and Maclure 389
Index to Geology of North America, second edition 251
the Geology of the Northern States 234
Indiana geological survey by D. D. Owen. 349, 507
under E. T. Cox. 548
second geological survey 433
Infusory stratum, discovery of 342
Inland seas, views of Schoolcraft 245
Inversion of strata, views of Edward Hitchcock 471
H. D. and W. B. Rogers 342, 370
Inverted dip 315
views of William Aiken 321
Iowa, geological surveys of 351, 465, 532
Iron ore at Cumberland, Rhode Island, eruptive nature of 348
of Lake Superior, origin of 404
Missouri, origin of 556
origin of, by C. T. Jackson 289
Irving, Roland D., assistant, survey of Wisconsin 570, 571
sketch of 701
work in Wisconsin 573
Isostacy 500
Itacolumite, views of O. M. Lieber 445
Ives' expedition up the Colorado 477

Jackass Creek, inverted beds of 599
Jackson, Charles T., survey of Maine 346
New Hampshire 358
Nova Scotia 288
Rhode Island 347
on inclination of stratified rocks 359
origin of coal 360
reservation of mineral lands 415
source of trap and origin of iron ores 289
sketch of 290, 702
views on drift .. 347, 348, 359
volcanoes ... 359
work in Michigan 414
Jackson, R. M., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 490

Page.

Jackson, W. H., photographer on Hayden surveys 593, 596
James, Edwin, geologist, Long's expedition 245
sketch of 702
James, U. P., sketch of 702
Jaycox, T. W., topographer, Hayden survey 596
Jefferson, Thomas, comments of 216
paleontologist 213
Jenny, W. P., work in Black Hills 568, 569
Johnson, W. R., sketch of 702
Johnston-Lavis, H. J., views on Eozoonal structure 645
Joints, origin of 284
Jones, David, on supposed volcanoes, in Connecticut 209
Jordan, D. S., assistant, survey of Indiana 548
Journal of Geology, Monthly American 301
Judd, J. W., account of William Smith's work 217
Julian, A. A., work on survey of Michigan 536

Kansas Permian controversy 485
survey under G. C. Swallow 527
work of Meek and Hayden 587
B. F. Mudge 525
Keating, William H., expedition to Great Lakes 274
on origin of drift 276
Lake Superior copper 276
sketch of 702
Keewatin, name proposed 476
Kentucky, geological history of, by Rafinesque 271
geological survey under D. D. Owen 443
survey under N. S. Shaler 565
Kerr, Washington C., on effects of earth's rotation 562
sketch of 564, 702
work in North Carolina 530, 562
King, Alton, finding of fossil footprints 630
King, Clarence, assistant, survey of California 515
first Director United States Geological Survey 624
fortieth parallel survey 607
sketch of 614, 702
views on lignitic group 651, 656
King, Franklin H., assistant, survey of Wisconsin 571
sketch of 703
King, William, views on the supposed fossil *Eozoon canadense* 639, 641
Kirtland, J. P. 331
Kitchell, William, sketch of 703
work in New Jersey 460
Klippart, J. H., assistant, survey of Ohio 541
Knowlton, F. H., views on lignitic group 658

Laccolites, G. K. Gilbert's description of 622
Laccolithic mountains 601
Ladd, S. B., topographer, Hayden survey 598
Lake Superior copper and silver ores 418

Page.

Lake Superior, geology of 414–420
ores, origin of, by J. D. Whitney 440
physical characters of, by Louis Agassiz 415
slates, origin of 419
Lapham, Increase A., sketch of 703
survey of Wisconsin 570
Laramie question, the 647
views of E. D. Cope 650
F. V. Hayden 653, 656
Clarence King 656
F. H. Knowlton 658
Leo Lesquereux 648, 650, 653
A. R. Marvine 651
F. B. Meek 648
J. S. Newberry 651
A. C. Peale 654
T. W. Stanton 658
J. J. Stevenson 619, 652
L. F. Ward 657
C. A. White 655
Latrobe, B. H., sandstone of Aquia Creek 214
Laurentian of Canada, fossils in 635
series, origin of 518–521
subdivision of, by Logan 476
Lawrence, Byrem, geology of the Western States 386
Lea, Isaac, contributions to geology 320
sketch of 703
views on earthquakes 280
Lead and zinc ores of Iowa, Whitney's views on 468
deposits in Mississippi Valley 439
in Illinois, by Whitney 496
mines of Missouri 240
ores, origin of 276, 482, 572
Le Conte, John L., Pacific railroad survey 531
sketch of 703
Le Conte, Joseph, on coral growth 465
mountain making 502, 558
the Taconic 675
sketch of 561, 703
Lehman, A. E., assistant on geological survey of Pennsylvania 582
Leidy, Joseph, assistant on survey of New Jersey 460
description of Bad Lands fossils 413
sketch of 703
work on Hayden survey 598
Leonard, Jackson, assistant survey of Missouri 555
Lesley, Joseph, assistant to D. D. Owen 443
Lesley, J. Peter, assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 490
letter of 582
Manual of Coal 461
on mountain structure and uplift; on erosion 513
origin of iron ores; on denudation 567
sketch of 584, 703
State geologist of Pennsylvania 582

Page.

Lesley, J. Peter, tribute to F. V. Hayden ... 606
Lesley-Rogers controversy ... 461
Lesquereux, Leo, assistant to D. D. Owen .. 443
assistant, Illinois survey. 496
survey of Pennsylvania ... 582
on lignitic group ... 648–650, 653, 654
origin of lignite beds 599
sketch of ... 498, 704
work on geological survey of Indiana ... 548
Levette, G. M., assistant, survey of Indiana. 548
Lewis, Samuel ... 341
Lewis, Zachariah, views on weathering of trap rock ... 255
Lieber, Oscar M., assistant to Michael Tuomey ... 409
sketch of ... 704
work in South Carolina ... 444
Lignite beds, origin of, views of Leo Lesquereux ... 599
Lignitic. *See* LARAMIE ... 647
group, views of Leo Lesquereux. 648–650
strata, early views of F. V. Hayden ... 647
views of various authorities ... 647–658
Limestone (white) of New Jersey, age of .. 524
Lincoln, Benjamin, paper by ... 209
Little, George, appointed State geologist of Georgia ... 336
sketch of ... 704
work in Georgia ... 552
Litton, Abram, assistant to Owen ... 413
assistant, survey of Missouri 437
sketch of ... 704
Litton, C. M., assistant, survey of Missouri. 555
Living animals in rocks ... 245, 472
Locke, John, assistant to Jackson in Michigan ... 415
Swallow ... 438
sketch of ... 704
views on Christy's work ... 397
work in Ohio ... 332
Loess, views of Binney ... 398
Loew, Oscar, assistant, Wheeler survey 616
Logan, C. A., assistant, survey of Kansas .. 527
Logan, William E., geological survey of Canada ... 384
Geology of Canada .. 517
on Laurentian fossils. 635
drift ... 518
origin of Laurentian series ... 518–519
sketch of ... 519, 704
subdivision of the Laurentian ... 476
Long, Stephen H., expedition. Map of route ... 246
expedition to Great Lakes ... 274
expedition to Rocky Mountains ... 245
Long-Keating expedition. Map ... 275

Page.

Louisiana, geology of, by F. V. Hopkins ... 558
E. W. Hilgard's work in ... 535
Practical geology of, by R. Thomassy ... 504
Ludlow, W., expedition to the Black Hills . 567
Lyell, views on Richmond bowlder train .. 405
Lyon, S. T., assistant to D. D. Owen ... 443

McCauslin, Robert, mineral analyses ... 210
McClellan, George B., work with Marcy expedition ... 434
McCreath, A. S., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania ... 582
McGillycuddy, V. T., topographer, Black Hills expedition . 568
McIntire, E. S., assistant, survey of Indiana. 548
McKinley, A., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania ... 490
McKinney, J. C., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania ... 490
Macfarlane, James, sketch of ... 704
Maclurean Era, the ... 207
Maclure, William, geological classification of rocks ... 220
geology of the West India islands ... 306
letter to Parker Cleaveland ... 227
Observations on the Geology of the United States ... 217–227
on formation of rocks .. 306
future of great cities. 218
United States 218
remarks on inclined strata ... 277, 389
volcanoes. 280
sketch of ... 217, 705
Macomb, J. N., expedition of ... 478
Macy, B. C., assistant to Owen ... 413
Maine, geological map of ... 512
survey under Jackson ... 346
natural history survey of ... 511
Mallett, J. W., work on Tuomey's report 408
Mammoth bones in Ohio ... 249
remains ... 213–214
Manual of Geology, by E. Emmons ... 281
Marcou, Jules, discovery of Permian fossils in America ... 485
geological map of the United States ... 448
geologist, Wheeler survey .. 616
sketch of ... 705
work on Pacific Railroad surveys ... 451
with Agassiz in Lake Superior region 415
Marcy, Oliver, sketch of ... 705
Marcy, R. B., exploration of the upper Red River ... 434
Marsh, Dexter, finding of fossil footprints. 625, 630
Marsh, Othniel C., appointed United States paleontologist ... 554
comparative value of vertebrate and invertebrate fossils ... 658

Page.

Marsh, Othniel C., description of *Anchisaurus colurus* 633
first scientific expedition 553
sketch of 705
work in connection with fortieth parallel survey 609
Martin's Systema Reliquiorum 253
Marvine, Archibald R., assistant, Wheeler survey 616
geologist, Hayden survey 598, 600
sketch of 705
views on lignitic group 651
Maryland, mineralogical map of 214
work of J. T. Ducatel and J. H. Alexander 321
P. T. Tyson and James Higgins 428
Massachusetts, economic geology of 311
first State geological survey 233
geological survey under Hitchcock 307
Geology and mineralogy of, by Chester Dewey 269
Institute of Technology, incorporation of 343
Mather, Cotton, account of mammoth remains 214
Mather, W. W., Elements of Geology 334
on glacial drift and overturned folds 395–396
physical geology of United States 393
sketch of 333, 705
views on drift and sedimentation 375–376
the Taconic 663
work on New York geological survey 374
Matthew, G. F. 354
Meade, W., on elastic marble 223
Mease, James, geological account of the United States 217
Meek, F. B., assistant, Iowa survey 465
survey of Illinois 496
to D. D. Owen 413
G. C. Swallow 438
criticism of Hall 467
on lignitic group 648–650
Permian fossils in Kansas 485
Triassic in Kansas and Nebraska 487
sketch of 607, 706
with F. V. Hayden in Kansas 587
work in Bad Lands, 1853–1866 585
connection with fortieth parallel survey 609
connection with Wheeler survey 616
Melaphyr, deceptive appearance of 284
Metallic wealth of United States, by Whitney 438

Page

Metamorphism, views of J. D. Dana 388
Edw. Hitchcock 470, 510
Mexican boundary survey 460
Michigan, survey under D. Houghton 360
Alex. Winchell 505, 536
work of Foster and Whitney 417
C. T. Jackson 414
Raphael Pumpelly 538
Milk sickness in cattle, cause of 443
Millington, John, work in Mississippi 430
Mineral cabinets, early 227
lands, reservation of, by General Government 351
veins, views of O. M. Lieber 445
Mineralogy, treatise on, by P. Cleaveland 225
C. U. Shepard 227
Minnesota, survey under H. E. Eames 530
Mississippi, sources of 242
survey under E. W. Hilgard 483
work of John Millington and B. L. C. Wailes 430
Mississippi Valley, earthquake in 280
explorations in 240
Nuttall's observations on 255
Missouri, geological survey under G. C. Swallow 437
surveys of J. G. Norwood and Raphael Pumpelly 555
work of Albert Hager 554
Mitchell, Elisha, on origin of gold 286
sketch of 285, 706
work in North Carolina 285
Mitchill, Samuel L., amendment of Maclure's chart of United States 224
catalogue of minerals from Niagara 223
ideas on drift 230–232
observations on geology of North America 230
sketch of 706
Moebius, Carl, views on *Eozoon canadense* 642
Montana, survey under F. V. Hayden, 1871 595
work of F. V. Hayden in 1872 596
Montreal, geology of, by J. J. Bigsby 265
Moody, Pliny, finding of fossil footprints 628
Moore, Francis M., appointed State geologist of Texas 487
work in Texas 509
Moore, P. N., assistant, survey of Kentucky 565
Morton, Samuel G., correlation by means of fossils 288
sketch of 706
Morse, L. D., geological survey of Missouri 438
Mountain building, views of James Hall 499–500
Joseph Le Conte 502
making, Le Conte's views 558
structure, views of J. P. Lesley 513
uplift, views of William Aiken 321
G. K. Gilbert 617
F. V. Hayden 590
Clarence King 611, 612
Mudge, Benjamin F., sketch of 706
work in Kansas 525

Page.

Murchison, remarks on Dobson's views.... 274
views on fossil footprints 627, 628
Murray, Alexander, assistant on Canadian survey 517
sketch of 706
work in Newfoundland 520
Murrish, John, sketch of 706
work in Wisconsin 552
Mushback, J. E., assistant, Hayden survey. 603
Nash, Alanson, views on lead mines 284
National Institute organized 364
Natural Bridge, origin of 224
wall of Rowan 267
Nebraska, work of F. V. Hayden 592
Nevada, attempted State survey 503
Newberry, J. S., assistant, Illinois survey .. 496
geologist, Ives expedition. 477
on glaciation 512
origin of canyon of Colorado 477
drift.... 542, 543, 545
lignitic group 651
Taconic 675
second survey of Ohio 541
sketch of 480, 707
with the Macomb expedition 478
work on Pacific Railroad surveys 455
Newberry-Whittlesey controversy 543
New Brunswick, work of A. Gesner 353
Newfoundland, work of Murray and Howley 520
New Hampshire, survey by C. T. Jackson.. 358
New Haven, geology and mineralogy of ... 224
New Jersey, subsidence of coast 524
survey by H. D. Rogers 326
of 1835 326
under William Kitchell 460
G. H. Cook 523
New Mexico, explorations in, by A. Wislizenus 398
work of F. V. Hayden 592
Newton, Henry, assistant, survey of Ohio.. 541
sketch of 707
work in Black Hills 568
New York, geological survey of 344
personnel of . 344
Island, geology of 357, 385
State geological survey..... 374, 381
Niagara Falls, estimation of age 358
gorge of, views of Rogers and Fairholme 327
views on formation of, by Hall 384
limestone 353
Nicholson, William, meteorologist on Hayden survey 596
Nicollet, Jean N., explorations of 316
sketch of 316
Niles, W. H., sketch of 707
Noachian deluge. *See* DELUGE.
North American geology, E. Emmons..... 281
North Carolina coal, age of..... 430
survey by Denison Olmsted. 266

Page.

North Carolina, work of E. Emmons..... 430
W. C. Kerr..... 530, 562
Elisha Mitchell 285
Norwood, C. J., assistant, survey of Kentucky..... 565
geologist on survey of Missouri 555
Norwood, Joseph G., assistant to Swallow.. 438
in charge, survey of Missouri 555
sketch of..... 707
work in Illinois..... 432
Novaculite, origin of, by D. D. Owen 482
Nova Scotia, geology of, by C. T. Jackson and Francis Alger 288
work of J. W. Dawson 446
Abraham Gesner..... 336
Nuttall, Thomas, observations on structure of Mississippi Valley 255

Observations on the geology of North America 230
Ohio, Edward Orton, State geologist 546
geological survey of, by W.W. Mather under J. S. Newberry 331
work of S. P. Hildreth.... 541
Hall's geological work in 330
Olmsted, Denison, discovery of red sandstone 383
sketch of..... 249
survey of North Carolina 267, 707
Oolitic structure, cause of 266
Ore deposits, origin of, by Whitney 443
Oreodon from Bad Lands 473
Origin of the earth, views of B. Silliman .. 413
Ornithichnites, name given by Edw. Hitchcock 292
Orton, Edward, assistant on geological survey of Ohio..... 625
sketch of..... 541
State geologist of Ohio 547, 707
Overthrust fault, early suggestion of..... 546
Overturned folds of Snake Hill..... 253
views of Edw. Hitchcock; and H. D. Rogers 277
W.W. Mather.... 314
Owen, D. D., death of 396
geological survey of Indiana.. 483
Kentucky 349
geology of the Western States. 443
on human footprints in stone. 369
sketch of 264
surveys of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois..... 350, 707
work in Chippewa land district 351
Arkansas..... 411
on survey of Indiana... 482
Owen, Richard, geology of the globe 507
sketch of 474
views on fossil foot prints of Conneticut Valley..... 708
627

Page.

Owen, Richard, views on value of fossils.... 507
work in Arkansas..... 482
on survey of Indiana. 507
Ozark Mountains, carboniferous rocks..... 247

Pacific Railroad surveys 449–456
J. L. Le Conte's work 531
Packard, A. S., entomologist, Maine survey. 511
Paleozoic deposits, parallelism of, by Hall. 419
strata, classification of..... 490–492
Pallas, referred to 207
Paradoxides, finding of 464
Parallelism of Paleozoic deposits 419
Parry, C. C., geologist, Mexican boundary survey..... 460
Peale, Albert C., geologist, Hayden survey 598, 603
inverted beds of Jackass Creek..... 597–599
mineralogist, Hayden survey 595
sketch of..... 708
views on lignitic group. 654
with Hayden surveys.. 593, 596, 600
Peale, Rembrandt, on bones of mammoth.. 213
Pebbles, distortion of, in conglomerate 315
elongation of..... 510
Pennsylvania, appointment of H. D. Rogers, State geologist..... 344
final reports on geology of.. 489
geological survey of 344
organization of Geological Society 320
second geological survey of. 581
Percival, James G., geological survey of Connecticut 329
on origin of iron ores. 442
sketch of 329, 708
work in Wisconsin ... 442
Permian fossils 485
Perry, John B., sketch of..... 708
views on Eozoonal structure 643
Richmond bowlder train..... 405
Taconic 668
Peter, Robert, analyses of soils..... 483
assistant to D. D. Owen..... 443
chemist, survey of Kentucky 565
sketch of..... 708
Petite Anse, geological work of E. W. Hilgard 561
origin of..... 504
Petroleum in California, views of J. D. Whitney 515
origin of, in Ohio, views of J. S. Newberry..... 542
springs, early discovery of..... 331
Philadelphia, geology of environs 283
Phillips, E., assistant to Owen 353
Physical geology of United States, by W. W. Mather..... 394
Pilot Knob, eruptive nature of, by S. B. Buckley..... 510

Page

Platt, W. B., naturalist, Hayden survey.... 596
Pope's expedition of 1855..... 444
Porphyries of Missouri, origin of..... 556
Potsdam sandstone, origin of 468, 553, 571
Potter, William B., assistant, survey of Ohio..... 541
geologist, survey of Missouri 555
sketch of 709
Powell, John W., exploration of the Grand Canyon 566
geological and geographical surveys..... 619
sketch of..... 709
work in Uinta Mountains. 619
Powell, W. Byrd, work in Fourche Cove... 373
Prairies, origin of 497
Pratton, Henry, assistant to Owen..... 413
Presque Isle, section of..... 243
Prime, Frederick, assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
sketch of..... 709
Proctor, J. R., assistant, survey of Kentucky. 565
Prout, H. A., description of Bad Lands fossils 413
Pumpelly, Raphael, on origin of copper... 538
origin of porphyries and iron ore 556
sketch of 709
survey of Missouri.... 555
work in China..... 522
Michigan .. 536, 538

Rafinesque, annals of Kentucky 271
Rapp, Frederick, views on human footprints in stone..... 263
Rathbun, Richard, with Hartt in Brazil ... 530
Raynolds, W. F., expedition to the Yellowstone River..... 589
Read, M. C., assistant, survey of Ohio..... 541
Redfield, William C., sketch of..... 709
Red River of Louisiana, exploration of, by Marcy 434
Red sandstone, fossils in 249
Rensselaer County, N. Y., Eaton's survey of. 254
Rhode Island, survey of, under Jackson... 347
Richardson, James, assistant, survey of Canada 517, 549
Richmond bowlder train, origin of... 393, 402, 405
Richthofen's classification of volcanic rocks 622
Riddell, J. L., on geology of Texas..... 355
Riddell, W. P., assistant, survey of Texas.. 488
Ridgeway, T. S..... 341
Ridgway, Robert, ornithologist, fortieth parallel survey 609
Rivers, cutting power of..... 310
Rock classification, by J. F. and S. L. Dana.. 229
E. Emmons..... 431
Edward Hitchcock 311–312
(volcanic), by Richthofen 622
Rock decay, views of J. Van Rensselaer.... 279
Rockweathering..... 284
and erosion 435
Rocks, age of, by Lardner Vanuxem 291
Rocky Mountains, Long's expedition to.... 245
Roemer, Ferdinand, work in Texas..... 487

Page.

Roepper, W. T., sketch of 709
Roessler, A. R., assistant to Shumard in Texas 510
draftsman on survey of Texas 488
Rogers Brothers, on Appalachian structure. 493
views on Richmond bowlder train 402
Rogers, Henry D., appointed State geologist of Pennsylvania 344
final report on geology of Pennsylvania 489
geological survey of New Jersey, 1835 326
Lesley's controversy 461
on age of white limestone 326
atmosphere of coal period 390
formation of coal ... 372
glaciation 494
overturned folds 314
physical structure of Appalachian chain 370
subsidence and deposition 508
the gorge of Niagara.. 327
the Taconic 663
vein formation 495
sketch of 328, 709
work on Virginia survey. 341
Rogers, James B 341
Rogers, Robert E 341
chemist, survey of Pennsylvania 490
Rogers, William B., geological survey of Virginia 341
on discovery of infusory stratum... 342
inversion of strata 342
physical structure of Appalachian chain 370
thermal springs.. 372
sketch of 342, 710
Rogers, W. B., jr., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 490
Rominger, Carl, sketch of 540, 710
work on survey of Michigan 536, 538
Rothe, C. E., on origin of gold ores 286
Rowney, T. H., views on *Eozoon canadense*. 639, 641
Ruffin, Edmund, sketch of 710
work in South Carolina .. 386
Russell, Israel C., assistant, Wheeler survey. 616
sketch of 710
Russian astronomical expedition 207

St. John, Orestes, assistant, survey of Illinois 496
work in Brazil 529
Wyoming 603
Safford, James M., final report on geology of Tennessee 534
on unconformability in Tennessee 488
sketch of 710

Page.

Safford, James M., work in Tennessee 456
Salt, formation of 270
Sand rock (red) of New York, age of 471
Sandstone of Connecticut, age of 309
(Potsdam), origin of 468
(red) of eastern United States, origin of 395
(red) of Lake Superior, age of. 413, 415
Say, Thomas, with Long's expedition 245
zoologist, Long's expedition to Great Lakes 274
Schaeffer, P. W. assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 490
Schenk, J., assistant survey of Indiana 548
Schiel, James, work on Pacific Railroad surveys 455
Schmidt, Adolph, geologist, survey of Missouri 555
on origin of iron ore 556
Schmidt, H. D., naturalist, Hayden surveys. 593
Schönborn, Anton, topographer, Hayden survey 595
Schoolcraft, Henry R., explorations of Mississippi Valley .. 240, 243
inland seas 245
lead mines of Missouri 240
section of Presque Isle 243
sketch of 240, 710
travels 244
views on copper deposits ... 244
Dubuque lead deposits ... 244
supposed human footprints 261
Schöpf's work on American geology 208
Schott, Arthur, assistant, Mexican boundary survey 460
Schuchert, Charles, on geology of Tennessee 489
Scudder, Samuel H., sketch of 710
work in Colorado and Wyoming 602, 603
Secondary enrichment of ore deposits, views of J. D. Whitney 440
Section from Catskill Mountains to the Atlantic 235
Sedimentation, Mather's views on 376
Selwyn, A. R. C., director geological survey of Canada 549
sketch of 549
views on Taconic 675
Serpentine of Syracuse, New York, origin of 459
Serra, J. Corre de, on nature of soil of Kentucky 224
Shaler, Nathaniel S., director of geological survey of Kentucky 565
on continental uplift. 528
geology of Anticosti Island 519
sketch of 711
Shaw, James, assistant, Illinois survey 496
Shepard, Charles U., mineralogical survey of Connecticut 329

Page.

Shepard, Charles U., on geology of upper Illinois 340
sketch of 711
treatise on mineralogy 227
Shumard, Benjamin F., assistant to Swallow discovery of Permian fossils 486
geological survey of Texas 487
sketch of 711
work on Marcy expedition 435
Shumard, G. G., report on Marcy expedition 434
work in the Red River district 434
on Pope expedition .. 444
Shumard, G. G., assistant, survey of Texas. 488
Sierra el Late 601, 602
Sierra la Sal 601
Silliman, Benjamin, appointment at Yale . 215
on aqueo-igneous agencies 318
cause of deluge 260, 293, 316
fossils in rocks 293
Genesis and geology 316–317
geology of New Haven 224
lead mines near Northampton, Mass 223
mineralogy of New Haven 216
origin of the earth. 292
the Weston meteorite 216
outlines of geology ... 292
sketch of 215, 711
Silliman, Benjamin, jr., on intrusive trap of Connecticut 389
sketch of 711
Silliman's Journal, founding of 228
Silurian formations, unconformability of .. 488
Sinks, Tiffin, assistant, survey of Kansas 527
Sioux country, Warren expedition to 586
Slates of Lake Superior, origin of 419
Slaty cleavage, cause of 406, 494
Smith, C. D., sketch of 711
Smith, Eugene A., sketch of 711
work in Alabama 565
Smith, J. Lawrence, sketch of 712
Smith, T. P., on crystalline basalt 214
Smith, William, first geological map 217
Smithsonian Institution, organized 364
Snake Hill, overturned folds of 277
Society of American Naturalists and Geologists organized 364
Soil fertility, views of Amos Eaton 300
E. Emmons 432
formation, views of J. Van Rensselaer 279
Soils, analyses of, by Robert Peter 483
origin of, by de Serra 224
South Carolina, first geological survey of .. 387
Tuomey's final report on geology of 405–406

Page.

South Carolina, work of O. M. Lieber 444
Ruffin and Tuomey 386–387
Spencer, A. C., studies on origin of gneiss. 524
Squire, Joseph, sketch of 712
Stansbury, Howard, explorations in Utah .. 410
Stanton, T. W., views on lignitic group 658
State geological survey, first 233
Steel, J. H., overturned folds of Snake Hill. 277
Stevens, R. P., geology of New York Island. 386
Stevenson, James, with Hayden survey .. 592, 596
Stevenson, John J., assistant on geological survey of Pennsylvania 582
geologist, Wheeler survey 616
paleontological work in Pennsylvania 583
sketch of 712
views on Laramie 619
lignitic group 652
Strong, E. A., assistant, survey of Michigan 536
Strong, Moses, assistant, survey of Wisconsin 570, 571
Stuckle, Henry W., assistant, Hayden survey 599
Subsidence and deposition, views of W. B. Rogers and Louis Agassiz 508
of Atlantic coast, views on .. 406, 409
Superimposed valleys, term first used 567
Swallow, George C., geological survey of Kansas 527
geological survey of Missouri 437
on Permian fossils in Kansas 485
sketch of 527, 712
survey of southwest branch of Pacific Railroad 456
Sweet, E. T., assistant, survey of Wisconsin. 571

Taconic, name first proposed 661
question 659
rocks 472
system 281
Taggert, W. R., geologist, Hayden geological survey 596, 599
Tappan, Benjamin, ideas on drift 286
Taylor, Richard C., model of coal field 365
sketch of 712
Tennessee, geological survey of 1831–1835 .. 303
Safford's final report on geology of 534
sketch of geology, by R. O. Currey 458
unconformability between Silurian formations 488
work of J. M. Safford 456
Gerard Troost 366
Ternary, name proposed by H. H. Hayden. 259
Tertiary, T. A. Conrad's views on 320
deposits of Atlantic coast, by Lardner Vanuxem 288
North America 306
Tuomey's views on 407
of North America, by Conrad 396

Page.

Tertiary rocks of Alabama, views of Isaac Lea 320
subdivisions of, by John Finch... 266
by J. S. Newberry 542
work on, by T. A. Conrad..... 354
Teschemacher, J. E., sketch of..... 712
Texas, geological survey under B. F. Shumard..... 487
geology of, by J. L. Riddell..... 355
work of Francis Moore and S. B. Buckley..... 509
Thermal springs, views of Rogers on..... 372
Thomas, Cyrus, botanist on Hayden survey. 592
Thomassy, R., Geologie Pratique de la Louisiane..... 504
Thompson, Zadock, assistant, Vermont survey..... 391
geologist, Vermont survey..... 469
sketch of..... 393, 712
Transition, name first applied..... 377
Trap rocks of Conewago Hills..... 254
volcanic nature of..... 255
weathering of..... 255, 284
source of..... 289
tufa of Connecticut Valley 389
Trask, John B., geological survey of California..... 435
sketch of..... 712
Trego, C. B., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania..... 490
Triassic rocks in Kansas and Nebraska 487
Trilobites, monograph of, by Jacob Green. 305
Troost, Gerard, geology of environs of Philadelphia 283
sketch of..... 282, 712
work in Tennessee..... 303, 366
True, N. T., assistant on survey of Maine.. 511
Tuomey, Michael, report on geology of South Carolina..... 405
sketch of..... 387, 713
survey of Alabama..... 408
views on Tertiary deposits 407
work in South Carolina 387
Tyrrell, J. B., assistant, survey of Canada.. 549
Tyson, Philip T., sketch of..... 713
work in California 427
Maryland 428

Uinta Mountains, J. W. Powell's work in... 619
views of Clarence King.. 612
Ulrich, E. O., on geology of Tennessee..... 489
Uniformitarianism, views of Edw. Hitchcock..... 310
United States exploring expedition..... 422
Geological Survey, consolidation of surveys..... 624
map, by Jules Marcou..... 448
Uplift and erosion, views of J. P. Lesley ... 513
continental, views of N. S. Shaler.... 528
of strata, views of Abraham Gesner . 337
Utah, explorations in..... 410
work of Henry Engelmann 502

Valley formation, by Amos Eaton..... 270
Valleys of denudation..... 311, 313
Van Rensselaer, Jeremiah, lectures on geology..... 278

Page.

Van Rensselaer, Jeremiah, on origin of coal 279
views on rock decomposition 279
Van Rensselaer, Stephen..... 254
sketch of..... 713
Vanuxem, Lardner, on relative age of rocks 291
Tertiary deposits of Atlantic coast.... 288
value of fossils in geology 291
sketch of 291, 713
views on Taconic..... 663
work in New York.... 378
Vein formation, views of Alanson Nash.... 284
H. D. Rogers..... 495
Vermont, first State geological survey of... 391
survey under Edward Hitchcock. 469
Viele, Egbert L., assistant to William Kitchell 460
Virginia, survey by W. B. Rogers..... 341
Volcanic activity, views of William Maclure..... 306
Volcanoes (supposed) in Connecticut..... 209
views of Thomas Cooper..... 261
C. T. Jackson..... 359
William Maclure 280
Von Hochstetter, Ferdinand, views on *Eozoon canadense* 640
Vose, G. L., assistant on survey of Maine.. 511

Wachsmuth, Charles, sketch of 713
Wadsworth, A. M., assistant, survey of Michigan..... 536
Wailes, B. L. C., work in Mississippi 430
Wakefield, E. R., meteorologist on Hayden survey..... 596
Walcott, Charles D., section of Bald Mountain..... 674
sketch of..... 713
views on Taconic..... 672
Ward, L. F., views on lignitic group 657
Ward, T., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania. 490
Warder, R. B., assistant, survey of Indiana. 548
Warren, George, assistant to Owen..... 413
Warren, G. K., expedition to the Black Hills..... 587
expedition to the Sioux country..... 586
Wasatch Mountains, uplift of 611-613
Washington, D. C., geology of vicinity..... 214
Watson, Sereno, botanist, fortieth parallel survey..... 609
Webster, J. W., geology of Boston 283
on origin of joints..... 284
weathering of Medford trap 284
Webster, Samuel, paper by..... 209
Wells, M..... 341
Werner, referred to..... 208
Western States, geology of, by Byrem Lawrence 386
D. D. Owen. 369
West India Islands, geology of, by William Maclure 306
Weston meteorite, description of, by Silliman 216
Wheeler, G. M., survey west of one hundredth meridian..... 616

Page.
Whelpley, J. D., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 490
White, Charles A., assistant on Hayden surveys 592
geological survey of Iowa 532
on lignitic 655, 658
paleontologist, Hayden survey 603
sketch of 713
work in connection with Wheeler survey 616
on Powell survey .. 619
White, Israel C., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
paleontological work in Pennsylvania 583
sketch of 713
Whiteaves, J. F., assistant, survey of Canada 549
Whitfield, Robert P., assistant on Iowa survey 465
paleontologist, survey of Wisconsin 571
sketch of 713
with fortieth parallel survey 609
Whitney, James D., assistant, Illinois survey 496
survey of Wisconsin 571
to Jackson ... 358
auriferous gravels 578
chemist, survey of Iowa. 465
climatic changes 579
metallic wealth of the United States 438
sketch of 714
State geologist of California 515
views on—
age of gold-bearing rocks of California 516
comparative value of gold and silver. 439
glaciation 580
lead in Mississippi Valley 439, 496
occurrence of gold .. 439
origin of—
ore deposits 473
Potsdam sandstone 468
Yosemite Valley 516
secondary enrichment of ore deposits 440
value of G. W. Featherstonhaugh's work 303
work in Iowa 468
Michigan. 415, 417
Wisconsin .. 473
Whittlesey, Charles, assistant to Owen 413
controversy with J. S. Newberry 543

Page.
Whittlesey, Charles, sketch of 714
work in Ohio 544
Wight, O. W., sketch of 715
State geologist of Wisconsin. 570
Wilkes exploring expedition 345, 422
Williams, H. S., views on Taconic 675
Wilson, A. D., topographer, Hayden survey. 599
Wilson, J. W., exception to Mitchill's hypotheses 260
on cause of deluge 260
Winchell, Alexander, sketch of 505, 714
survey of Michigan . 536
views on Taconic 675
work on survey of Michigan 505
Winchell, Newton H., assistant on survey of Michigan 536
sketch of 714
work in Black Hills. 567
Wing, Augustus, sketch of 714
views on Taconic 668
Winnipeg country, work of Henry Y. Hind in 499
Winslow, Arthur, assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
Wisconsin driftless area 473
survey under T. C. Chamberlin. 571
I. A. Lapham 570
D. D. Owen 351
surveys under James Hall, E. S. Carr, and Edward Daniels 472
work of Edward Daniels and J. G. Percival 442
R. D. Irving 573
John Murrish 552
J. D. Whitney 473
Wislizenus, F. A., explorations in New Mexico 398
sketch of 715
Wooster, L. C., assistant, survey of Wisconsin 571
Worthen, Amos H., assistant, survey of Iowa 465
on origin of drift ... 497
sketch of 497, 715
State geologist of Illinois 433
work in Illinois 496
Wright, C. E., sketch of 715
Wright, George F., assistant, survey of Pennsylvania 582
sketch of 715
Wurtz, Henry, assistant, New Jersey survey. 460
sketch of 715
Wyman, Jeffries, sketch of 715
Wyoming, Hayden survey, 1878 603
work of F. V. Hayden 592

Yellowstone Park, survey of by F. V. Hayden 595
Yosemite Valley, origin of, views of J. D. Whitney 516
Zirkel, Ferdinand, petrographer, fortieth parallel survey 609

THE S. S. HOWLAND COLLECTION OF BUDDHIST RELIGIOUS ART IN THE NATIONAL MUSEUM.

BY

IMMANUEL M. CASANOWICZ,

Aid, Division of Historic Archeology.

THE S. S. HOWLAND COLLECTION OF BUDDHIST RELIGIOUS ART IN THE NATIONAL MUSEUM.

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The collection was made by Mr. Howland during his travels abroad, which extended from Iceland to Burma, and loaned to the Smithsonian Institution, by which it was deposited in the United States National Museum. Most of the objects were obtained by him from their original possessors. Besides the objects herein described, Mr. Howland's deposit includes also several valuable Oriental manuscripts.

INTRODUCTION.

THE FOUNDER OF BUDDHISM.

Buddhism arose at the end of the sixth or beginning of the fifth century B. C. as a schism or reformation of Brahmanism in India. Its founder, known by the names of Gautama, Sakyamuni, and Buddha, was Siddhartha, son of Suddhodanna, of the family Gautama, rajah, or chieftain, of the Sakya clan, who were settled in the Ganges Valley, at the foot of the Nepalese Himalayas, about a hundred miles to the north of Benares, with Kapilavatsu as capital.

The simple facts of the founder's career, so far as they can be freed from the mass of legends woven about his person, are as follows: Siddhartha, who was of a meditative turn of mind and deeply impressed with the vanity and misery of life, retired from the world at the age of 29, after ten years of married life. This is called the "Great Renunciation." For six years he led the life of a recluse, devoting himself to the study of the various systems of philosophy and theology of the times, and to severe ascetic practices, without finding in either a solution of the riddle of existence. In his thirty-fifth year he passed through a second mental crisis. While sitting in meditation under the famous Bo-tree (a species of *Ficus religiosa*) at Buddha Gaya, he attained to the state of a Buddha—that is, of an "enlightened one," or "awakened one"—having found the cause of the evils of life and the way of deliverance from them.

For forty-five years Buddha went about from place to place in the valley of the Ganges, proclaiming his good tidings and gathering around him a small band of faithful followers, the earliest members of his afterwards famous order. He died peacefully in the midst of his disciples in his eightieth year at Kusinagara, the modern Kasia in the district of Gorakhpur.

BUDDHA'S DOCTRINES (DHARMA).

The substance of the teaching of Buddha is expressed in the "Four Noble Truths": (1) Existence is bound up with sorrow; (2) the causes of sorrow are our affections and passions; the craving for life and its pleasures, which result in new birth; old age, sickness, and death. For the present life of the individual is not the first one. Innumerable births have preceded it in previous ages. The attachment to life and its pleasures produces a new being, and the moral character of the actions of the former existences fixes the condition of the new being. This is called the law of cause and effect, or *Karma*. It is the aggregate result of all previous acts, in unbroken succession from the beginning of existence, which, in the Buddhist conception of man, constitutes his character, his real self, his soul, as it were. This alone endures when an individual existence has come to an end, tending to form, as a kind of transmigration of character, a new sentient being, whose nature, condition, and fortune it determines. Individuals are merely the present and temporary links in a long chain of cause and effect. Each link is the summarized result of the various activities of all that have gone before, and is, in its turn, part and parcel of all that will follow. By the theory of Karma, Buddhism explains the mystery of fate in the apparent unequal distribution here of happiness and woe, entirely independent of moral qualities. What a man reaps, Buddhism teaches, that he must himself have sown, as whatsoever a man sows that shall he also reap. (3) The cessation of sorrow by suppression of desire and passion; (4) the way to deliverance by the Eightfold Path: (1) Right views, (2) right resolutions, (3) right speech, (4) right conduct, (5) right way of earning a livelihood, (6) right endeavor, (7) right thoughts, and (8) right meditation.

The moral code of Buddhism is comprised in the following ten prohibitions: (1) Not to kill or even injure any sentient being, (2) not to steal, (3) not to commit adultery, (4) not to lie or use any manner of improper speech, (5) not to use intoxicating drinks, (6) not to take repasts at improper times (i. e., after midday), (7) not to attend dances, plays, and public spectacles, (8) not to wear costly raiment and garlands or use perfumes, (9) not to use large seats and beds, and (10) not to receive gold or silver.

The goal is the *Nirvana*. In this life a passionless calm, beyond reach of temptation, through the extinction of the great passions, such

as lust, hatred, anger, envy, and delusion. By thus uprooting all desire, and by perfect detachment from life and its attractions, cessation of the renewal of existence will be attained.

According to the Buddhist doctrine the historical founder of Buddhism was only one of the many Buddhas who appear in this world at intervals of many ages, and any one can become a Buddha—that is, attain to the way of salvation for himself and others—by practicing self-denial and contemplation.

THE BUDDHIST COMMUNITY (SANGHA).

The Buddhist community in the strict sense consists of an order of monks and nuns (*Bhikshus* and *Bhikshunis*) who, as a rule, live in monasteries and are vowed to celibacy, poverty, and obedience. But already in Buddha's lifetime it was found impracticable for all his adherents to retire from the world and join the order. On these lay-believers only the first five of the ten injunctions quoted above are obligatory. Among the virtues recommended to the masses are reverence of parents and teachers, care for wife and children, submission to authority, control over self, patience, forbearance, humility and contentment, almsgiving, respect for the life of sentient creatures, and care for the welfare of all living things.

Buddha, his doctrine, and the community form the triad of Buddhism, and the formula of confessing fellowship with Buddhism is: I take my refuge in the Buddha, in the Dharma, and in the Sangha.

HISTORY OF THE SPREAD OF BUDDHISM.

Already at the death of Buddha the number of Buddhists seems to have been considerable. About the middle of the third century B. C., during the reign of Asoka, Buddhism began to spread all over India. Towards the end of the eleventh century A. D. it was entirely suppressed in India itself, the land of its origin. But it had been adopted by the kings of Ceylon in the third century B. C. From thence and the south of India it was carried, in the fifth and seventh centuries A. D., to Burma, Siam, and the Javanese archipelago. It entered China about 70 A. D. and spread from thence to Korea in the fourth century A. D., and to Japan in the sixth century A. D. It is the established religion of Nepal and Tibet, and has adherents among the Mongols and Kalmucks on the lower Volga and the Buriats of southern Siberia. Wherever Buddhism went it was modified by the national characteristics and inherited beliefs of its converts, so that its fundamental doctrines were often overshadowed, sometimes destroyed, and it developed into strangely inconsistent and even antagonistic beliefs and practices. At the same time it everywhere exercised a profound influence, both on the moral and religious life of the peoples and on their art and architecture.

Buddhism is divided into two great schools—the southern school in Ceylon, Burma, and Siam, called the "Lesser Vehicle" (*Hinayana*), which is assumed to have preserved the original teachings of Buddha in greater purity and simplicity; and the northern school in central and eastern Asia, called the "Greater Vehicle" (*Mahayana*), which adopted many popular elements of mysticism and magic. Each of these schools is subdivided into many sects.

THE COLLECTION.

1. BUDDHA, STANDING ON THE LOTUS UPON A PLATFORM, WITH AN AUREOLE.—The figure is made of teak, gilded, and studded with colored stones; the platform is of wood, carved, painted, and gilded, and likewise studded with colored stones; the aureole is inlaid with pieces of looking-glass, surrounded by a rim of open carved work, terminating in a bird, perhaps the *Garuda*, the mythical bird of India, or the sacred goose (*hanza*). Measurements: Height of the figure, 3 feet 10 inches; height of the platform, 2 feet 4 inch; width, 3 feet; depth, 3 feet 6 inches.—Burma. (Plate 1, Cat. No. 216137, U.S.N.M.)

Buddha is generally represented as a beardless young man. The head is surmounted by a protuberance (*Ushnisha*), being the "hump of perfect wisdom." The hair is arranged in short curls, resembling sharp points, which tradition interprets to represent snails which once came out to shelter Buddha's head from the rays of the sun. A precious stone in the form of a bead (*Urna*) is on the forehead. The ear lobes are pierced and long, sometimes touching the shoulders. The arms are long, which with the Hindus is a mark of noble birth. The robe is thrown over the left shoulder, leaving the right one free. He is either standing, the attitude of teaching, or sitting with crossed legs, meditating, or reclining, passing away into the *Nirvana*. The throne (*padmasana*) upon which he sits or stands is formed of the fully opened lotus flower, the symbol of purity and perfection. Behind the head is often displayed a nimbus or halo, frequently in form of a fig leaf, in remembrance of the tree under which he attained to Buddhahood.

2. BUDDHA, SITTING IN MEDITATION.—Bronze and incrusted around the forehead with colored stones. Height, 2 feet 5 inches.—Burma. (Plate 2, Cat. No. 216126, U.S.N.M.)

3. BUDDHA, SEATED UPON A LOTUS.—Carved of teak and gilded. Height, 3 feet.—Burma. (Plate 3, Cat. No. 216131, U.S.N.M.)

4. BUDDHA, RECLINING (passing into Nirvana).—Made of alabaster, gilded and incrusted with colored stones. Placed on carved and gilded wooden stand. Length of figure, 2 feet 5 inches. Measurements of stand: Length, 3 feet; width, 1 foot 8 inches; height, 11 inches.—Burma. (Plate 4, Cat. No. 216130, U.S.N.M.)

5–7. THREE FIGURINES OF BUDDHA, representing him in the usual attitudes: Standing or teaching, sitting in meditation, and reclining, or passing into Nirvana. Bronze. The seated figurine is, like No. 2, incrusted around the forehead with colored stones. Measurements: 13 inches, 10½ inches, and 10 inches, respectively. (Plate 5, Cat. Nos. 216127–216129, U.S.N.M.)

8. BUDDHA, SEATED UPON THE LOTUS THRONE, which is supported by two lions, the emblem of the Sakya clan, with the nimbus in form of a fig leaf in the back, and attended by Bodhisattvas and disciples, comprising altogether fifteen figures. Bodhisattvas, in the teaching of the northern or Mahyana schools of Buddhism, are preexistent or future Buddhas. It is the belief of the Buddhists that these teachers of mankind appear upon earth at long intervals and the doctrine which they all proclaim is the same. With each there is a period in which the doctrine flourishes, then a gradual decline, then it is completely overthrown, till a new deliverer appears and once more establishes the lost truths. The last Buddha of this age of the world after Gautama will be Maitreya, "the loving one." The term Bodhisattva is, however, often applied to those Buddhist teachers who distinguished themselves by learning and piety. The Bodhisattvas are usually represented as young men wearing crowns or richly ornamented turbans with a round nimbus and decked with bracelets, necklaces, and breast chains. They are also often provided with some distinguishing emblem or attribute, such as a lotus, a sword, a small pagoda, a book, etc., and they ride animals, as lions, elephants, tigers, etc. Made of wood, lacquered and gilded. Inclosed in a black lacquered shrine which is adorned with ornamental bronze clasps and fittings and gilded inside. The doors of the shrine on the inside are painted in colors with figures of *Nios* or temple guards, which are sometimes placed on both sides of the first portal of a Buddhist temple in Japan. The shrine is said to date from the sixteenth century A. D., and to have come from the Vara temple. Measurements of the shrine: Height, 2 feet 4 inches; width, 2 feet; depth, 1 foot. Japan. (Plates 6 and 7, Cat. No. 216133, U.S.N.M.)

9. BUDDHA, STANDING IN A SMALL PAGODA and attended on either side by saints seated upon lotuses. The pagoda as well as the lotuses are supported by mythical animals, which rest on an elaborately carved pedestal. Wood, carved, lacquered, and gilded. Inclosed in a black lacquered shrine, the interior of which is gilded. Measurements of the shrine: Height, 12½ inches; width, 11 inches; depth, 7½ inches. — Japan. (Cat. No. 216134, U.S.N.M.)

10. BUDDHA, OR A BODHISATTVA, seated upon the lotus throne, which is supported by mythical animals. Wood, carved and gilded. Inclosed in a round shrine, lacquered in antique red, with bronze decorated folding doors, beautifully carved base, and gilded inside.

Measurements: Height, 15 inches; diameter of the base, 6½ inches.—Japan. (Cat. No. 216135, U.S.N.M.)

11. BUDDHA, seated upon an hexagonal pedestal, holding in his left hand the alms bowl. Wood, carved and gilded. Inclosed in a black lacquered shrine, the interior of which is gilded. The shrine is said to date from the fifteenth century A. D. and to come from the Temple of Matsuma at Yamato, Japan. Measurements of the shrine: Height, 4½ inches; width, 2 inches; depth, 1 inch.—Japan. Cat. No. 216136, U.S.N.M.)

12. TWO BUDDHIST SAINTS (*Arhats*).—The term arhat, also arahat, rahat, arhan, and rahan (Sanskrit, arhant), is applied to those disciples and followers of Buddha who have attained the highest degree of perfection and need not be born again; especially to one of the original five hundred disciples of Buddha. Buddhist temples usually contain numerous images of saints, to whom offerings of flowers, incense, candles, etc., are made. Of teak. Height, 2 feet.—Burma. (Plate 8, Cat. No. 216132, U.S.N.M.)

13. TWO BUDDHIST MONKS, HOLDING BEGGING BOWLS.—Carved on teak plaques. Buddhist monks shave their heads and wear a yellow robe. They get their living by begging each morning from house to house, when they collect rice and fruit enough for the morning and midday meal, as their rule forbids them eating after midday. The equipment of a Buddhist monk consists of a begging bowl (*patra*) and fruit bag, a rice spoon, a ewer, or water vessel (*uda patra*), a staff (*pinda*), a razor, a sewing needle, and a waistband. Measurements: Height, 2 feet; width, 1 foot 6½ inches.—Burma. (Plate 9, Cat. No. 216147, U.S.N.M.)

14. PAIR OF ORNAMENTAL BEGGING BOWLS.—Carved of wood and inlaid with pieces of looking-glass. Measurements: Height, 11½ inches; diameter, 16 inches.—Burma. (Plate 10. Cat. No. 216138 U.S.N.M.)

15. BUDDHIST SACRED BOOK.—Written on palm leaves, which are held together between two boards by a cord passed through them. The writing is done by means of a sharp stylus, and then ink is rubbed over so as to make the markings with the stylus visible. The sacred Scriptures of the Buddhists are called the "*Tripitaka*"—i. e., three baskets, because the palm leaves on which they were written were arranged in baskets as receptacles. Others explain the term as symbolical of the transmission of the teachings of Buddha through a long line of teachers and pupils, as baskets are handed on at excavations from workman to workman. The sacred language of the southern school is Pali; of the northern school, Sanskrit. The Buddhist Scriptures are divided into three parts: The *Vinaya* ("guidance") contains all that relates to the Order of Monks; the *Sutras* ("threads"—i. e., discourse), the exposition and elucidation of the doctrines of Buddhism; and the *Abhidharma* (expansion, or enlargement of the doctrine), a detailed

discussion of the philosophical basis of the doctrine. Measurements: 16 inches by 2½ inches by 1½ inches.—Burma. (Plate 11, Cat. No. 216139, U.S.N.M.)

16. Prayer wheel.—Consisting of a metal cylinder through which passes a wooden handle forming its axis. Around this axis a long strip of paper is rolled, inscribed with sacred sentences or invocations. A piece of metal fastened by a string to the cylinder facilitates the turning of it. Prayer wheels are used especially by the Buddhists of Tibet. The most usual invocation inscribed on the rolls in prayer wheels consists of the words: "Om! Mani padme! Hum!"—i. e., O jewel in the lotus flower! The lotus, which is otherwise the symbol of purity and perfection with Buddhists, is here employed in allusion to Avalokiteshvara, or Padmapani, the present Dhyani-Bodhisattva. In the theology of the northern school of Buddhism each earthly Buddha (Manushi-Buddha) has his mystic or spiritual counterpart, or Dhyani-Buddha in one of the heavens or the world of forms. Each of the Dhyani-Buddhas again has his Dhyani-Bodhisattva, who, after the passing away or the Nirvana of the human Buddha, becomes his representative on earth until the appearance of a new Buddha. Padmapani is considered as the Dhyani-Bodhisattva of Amitabha, the Dhyani-Buddha of Sakhya muni. By the Tibetans he is held in special veneration as the protector and patron of Tibet. He is believed to have appeared on earth from a lotus flower for the deliverance of mankind. The Tibetans believe that his descent and incarnation in the Dalai Lama, the head of Tibetan Buddhism, takes place by the emission of a beam of light.

Each revolution of the cylinder counts as an uttered prayer, provided that the turning is done slowly and from right to left, the latter in order to follow the writing which runs from left to right.

Besides the small hand-prayer wheels, usually measuring from 3 to 5 inches in height and from 2 to 3 inches in diameter, there are some of large size permanently set up near temples and monasteries to be turned by each person passing by them; or on gables of houses, or over the hearth, where they are twirled by the wind or smoke. Sometimes a wheel is fixed to the bed of a stream and kept in motion by the current, thus praying night and day for the owner. Measurements: Height, 2½ inches; diameter, 3 inches.—Burma. (Plate 12, Cat. No. 216140, U.S.N.M.)

17. Pair of temple lamps.—Open fretwork. On the top is the receptacle for oil in shape of a dish, from which fig leaves are suspended. The whole has a kind of aureole as a background and is surmounted by Ganesa, the Hindu god of sagacity with the elephat head, who also found a place in the Tibetan pantheon. Made of bronze. Measurements: Height, 3 feet 9 inches; diameter of the base, 13½ inches.—Tibet. (Plate 13, Cat. No. 216141, U.S.N.M.)

18. TEMPLE DRUM.—Mounted on a vase-shaped wooden stand carved, gilded, and studded with colored stones. Drums or bells are put up in front of Buddhist temples, on which the priests strike to announce the hours of prayer. The worshipers also strike them to invite the presence of the deity. Drums are likewise used in Buddhist worship to accompany the chanting of the priests. Measurements: Height, 2 feet 6 inches; diameters, 14½ and 11 inches.—Burma. (Plate 14, Cat. No. 216142, U.S.N.M.)

19. HOWDAH, OR SADDLE OF THE SACRED WHITE ELEPHANT.—Carved of wood, and gilded. The rare white elephant, properly of a pale reddish-brown color, with a few white hairs, is considered in East India as a sacred animal. Some Buddhists venerate it as an incarnation of the various Buddhas. Also some Bodhisattvas are represented riding elephants. The elephant is also considered an emblem of royalty, and forms a most imposing feature in every ceremonial procession of an Indian potentate. Measurements: Height, 2 feet 8 inches; length, 4 feet; width, 2 feet 7 inches.—Burma. (Cat. No. 216143, U.S.N.M.)

20. CABINET OF THE KING OF BURMA.—Carved open woodwork, gilded and inlaid with pieces of glass. Measurements: Height, 8 feet; length, 3 feet 3½ inches; width, 1 foot 11 inches.—Burma. (Cat. No. 216144, U.S.N.M.)

21. SADDLE OF THE KING OF BURMA.—Covered with red velvet and embroidered in gold. Measurements: Length, 2 feet; width, 1 foot.—Burma. (Cat. No. 216146, U.S.N.M.)

22. BED OF THE KING OF BURMA.—Carved open woodwork, gilded and inlaid with glass pieces. Measurements: Height, 3 feet 1 inch; length, 6 feet 6 inches; width, 3 feet 6 inches.—Burma. (Cat. No. 216145, U.S.N.M.)

23. WOODEN CARVED FIGURE HOLDING GONG.—Gongs are used in Buddhist worship to make known the presence of the worshiper, and also as introductory to prayer. Height, 4 feet.—Burma. (Cat. No. 216148, U.S.N.M.)

24. WOODEN CARVED FIGURE.—Height, 16½ inches.—Burma. (Cat. No. 216149, U.S.N.M.)

25. KWANTI, THE CHINESE GOD OF WAR.—Made of wood, lacquered and gilded. Height, 2 feet.—China. (Plate 15, Cat. No. 216150, U.S.N.M.)

26. THE CHINESE GOD OF PEACE. Made of wood, lacquered and gilded. Height, 2 feet.—China. (Plate 16, Cat. No. 216151, U.S.N.M.)

27. TWO JAPANESE PORCELAIN FIGURES.—Represented as seated on rocks, the one holding lotus stalks with a vase at its side, the other with food vessels. Height, 14½ inches each.—China. (Plate 17, Cat. Nos. 216152–216153, U.S.N.M.)

A STANDING FIGURE OF BUDDHA.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 740.

BUDDHA SITTING IN MEDITATION.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 740.

BUDDHA SEATED UPON A LOTUS.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 740.

BUDDHA RECLINING.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 740.

THREE FIGURINES OF BUDDHA.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 741.

BUDDHA WITH ATTENDANTS IN SHRINE.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 741.

THE SHRINE CLOSED.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 741.

TWO BUDDHIST SAINTS.

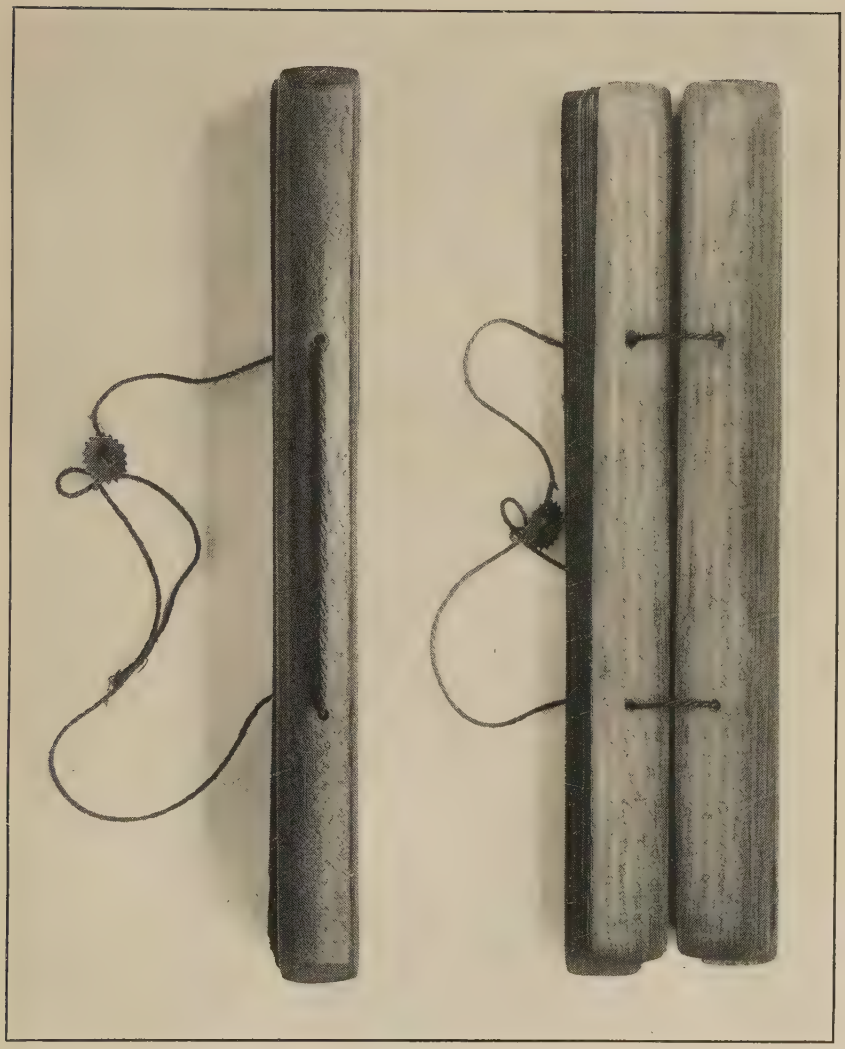
FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 742.

BUDDHIST MONK.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 742.

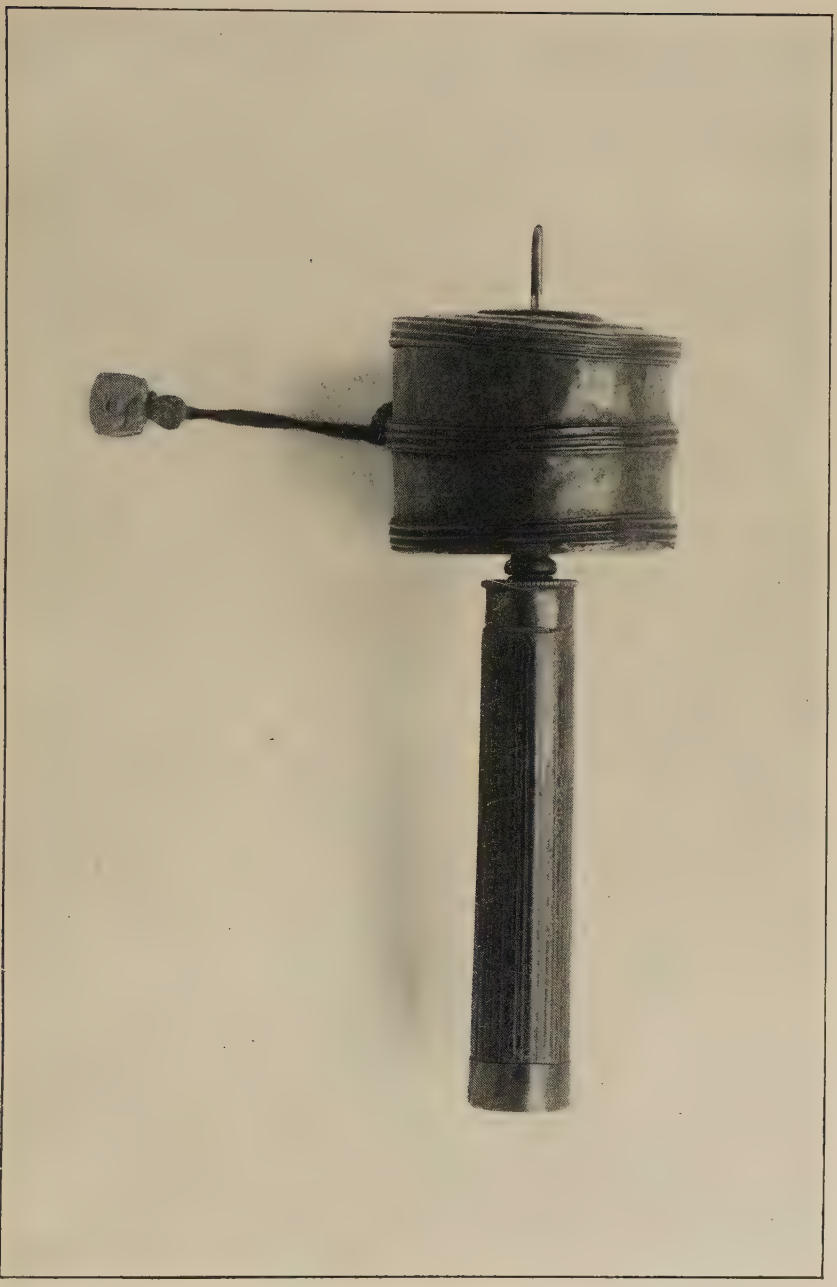
ORNAMENTAL BEGGING BOWL.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 742.



BUDDHIST SACRED BOOK.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 742.



PRAYER WHEEL.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 743.

A PAIR OF TEMPLE LAMPS.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 743.

A TEMPLE DRUM.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 744.

THE CHINESE GOD OF WAR.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 744.

THE CHINESE GOD OF PEACE.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 744.

TWO JAPANESE PORCELAIN FIGURES.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 744.

FLINT IMPLEMENTS OF THE FAYUM, EGYPT.

BY

HEYWOOD WALTER SETON-KARR,

Of the British Military Service in Egypt.

FLINT IMPLEMENTS OF THE FAYUM, EGYPT.

By Heywood Walter Seton-Karr,
Of the British Military Service in Egypt.

The province of the Fayum, in which the implements described below were found, consists of a natural leaf-shape depression, surrounded by the Libyan Hills, on the west of the Nile, and about fifty miles southwest of Cairo. The Bah Yusuf (Joseph's canal) connects the Fayum with the valley of the Nile, and in the northwest end of it is the Lake Birket-el-Kurun ("Lake of Horns"). In ancient times Lake Moeris filled nearly the whole depression of the province, and the present Birket-el-Kurun is considered by some authorities to be its shrunken representative. Here also was the celebrated "Labyrinth."

The district of the Fayum has yielded a great deal of material for archeological and for historical research in the stricter sense in the form of papyri and the celebrated Hellenistic encaustic portraits.

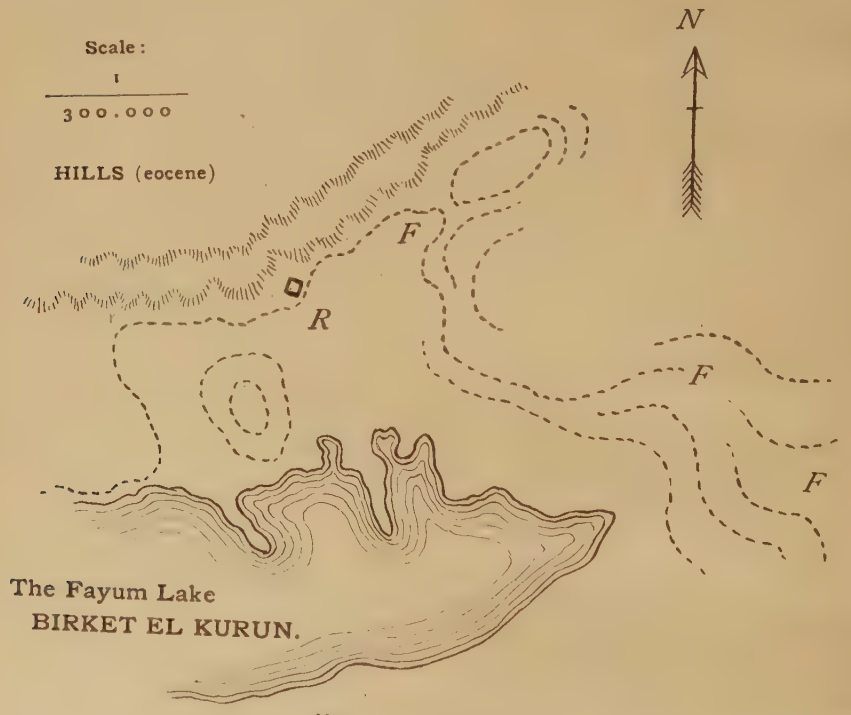
Lake Birket-el-Kurun is salt, and drinking water has to be carried to the neighborhood on camels. In ancient times the lake water was potable, having been of considerable volume.

The Arabs near Cairo have for some time been selling flint implements of new types from the Fayum; indeed, information came some years ago from Schweinfurth, Sayce, Sturge, and Evans that they had been found there in small numbers. Latterly H. J. Beadnell published a short paper [a] with map and plates. The map was important as showing roughly the supposed limits of the water. An outline is annexed, based on Beadnell's map, with slight additions regarding implementiferous localities and the ancient border. The implements occur over most parts of the surface above the ancient water level and where the prevailing north wind removes the sand—such as the crests of undulations. For, in some parts the hardened clay of the lake bottom is barred with lines of small sand waves having clear spaces between; stones and implements are on the bare parts, and few, if any, under the sand. They appear to prevent the sand from settling. There is practically nothing on the old lake floor, even where the deposit has been weathered away to the bed-rock, excepting around the border.

[a] Geological Magazine, February, 1903.

About the year 2200 B. C. Amenemhat I began to bring the periodical inflow from high Nile under control. If a natural lake existed long before, having broken in through the gap during some great flood, its level also must have varied, not only by evaporation but during cycles of low Nile, and also no water might have entered the oasis for years in succession.

The nodules of flint that occur all over this desert are of a tough consistency, small, and very suitable for making arrow points and the distinctive and peculiar Fayum implements. This may be the reason why only two "coups-de-poing," or "drift" implements of Chelléen or Acheuléen type were found.



MAP OF FAYUM DESERT.

The dotted line shows approximately the shore of the ancient lake; F F, implementiferous spots; R, ruins of Qasr el Sagha.

The implements from the flint mines in the Eastern Desert are of a cherty material, which occurs in masses and nodules of such shape and consistency as to be suitable for making them, and they are found only in that vicinity. Examples may now be seen in most of the museums on the four continents from both these localities, as also of those discovered by the writer in Somaliland. It is indeed probable that peculiar types discovered in different parts of the world have been evolved through the local material. For example, in the paleolithic workshops in the Madras Province of India, which I discovered

with the help of Mr. Bruce Foote and Mr. Macleod, the material in the shape of quartzite nodules is suitable for that type of implement. Specimens of these also are now to be seen in nearly all museums. At Banda (United Provinces of India) were procured numbers of polished axes set up in shrines, etc.

Besides the implements shown in the accompanying plates, there were found in the Fayum disks about 10 centimeters in diameter, and scrapers, the paleolithic "racloir" of de Mortillet's Le Préhistorique.[a]

The implements here figured are soon likely to become dispersed by presentation among different museums. The number discovered was very large, as areas of surface were laid off systematically and many Arabs were employed. They are remarkably quick at finding small objects in the sand. The selection is therefore more or less representative.

There are also two types not figured and peculiar to the Fayum, all the specimens of both series having been presented to the Cairo Museum.

The first is an unsightly, irregularly shaped, flat knife, pointed at both ends, rather rough, and with concave angles for fish-scaling. Not uncommon.

The second is a flat knife of a round and sometimes of an oval shape, but having somewhere in its circumference a well-marked, carefully worked, re-entrant angle or concave edge. The shape varies so much that a complete representative series would be out of the question. Figs. 124, 125, 127, 128, 129, partly resemble them.

Many of the implements figured resemble some of de Mortillet's and are classified as later paleoliths of the Solutréen epoch, corresponding to the Laugerie-Haute epoch of Evans—the apogee in the making of stone implements, as de Mortillet remarks. The color of the material varies greatly.

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Grenfell, Hunt, and Hogarth, Fayum towns and their papyri, London, 1900. Publication of the Egypt Exploration Fund. The introduction discusses the ancient geography of the Fayum in the relation of Lake Moeris to Bahr Yusuf in particular.

Linant Bey, Memoire sur le lac Moeris, 1843.

R. H. Brown, The Fayum and Lake Moeris, 1892.

DESCRIPTION OF PLATES.

Plate 1.

Thin knives, some of unusual narrowness, finely worked by compression on both sides. Nos. 1, 2, 7, 8, 9 have for their bases the natural outside of the stone; No. 10 is beautifully flaked by compression.

[a] Edition of 1900, p. 170.

PLATE 2.

Arrowheads, many of new and hitherto unknown types. Nearly all are exquisitely worked along the edges. No. 27 was found with 19 similar ones in a heap, partly covered by blown sand and may be the contents of the same quiver. Nos. 27, 28, 29 are about one-fourth inch in thickness, and are of a light pink color.

PLATE 3.

Further types of arrows of unusually large size and varied shapes. Some resemble examples from Ireland.

PLATE 4.

Nos. 97 to 107 are additional types of arrows. No. 107 must be compared with the Solutréen javelin heads or "Pointes à cran" figured in Le Préhistorique (p. 181) and with those in Plates 7 and 8. Nos. 108 and 109 are of crystal, the only examples not included in my discovery. They are in the Cairo Museum.

PLATE 5.

Nos. 112, 114, 116, 117, 120 are flat on the underside and show the conchoidal fracture or bulb of percussion. The rest are worked on both sides; having a natural butt end, however, they might resemble de Mortillet's Mousterian or middle-paleolithic pointes à main (p. 163).

PLATE 6.

No. 122 is one of a large number of bent flakes, polished and worked to a scraping edge on one side and peculiar to the Fayum. Nos. 123, 125, 126 another Fayum type. They resemble adze blades for working wood and hollowing out trees for canoes. Nos. 124, 125, 127, 128, 129 are knives with a cutting edge all round and an angle for scraping "grattoirs concaves." No. 130 exactly resembles de Mortillet's "double grattoir Solutréen" in the Musée de Saint Germain. These are not exclusively paleolithic. Evans figures one from Bridlington. No. 131 is one of two implements found which resemble a gravel-drift paleolith.

PLATE 7.

These implements resemble the "pointes en feuille de laurier" figured in Le Préhistorique on pages 181, 627, and 629. They belong to the later paleoliths or Solutréen epoch. These forms drift insensibly into the "Pointes en feuille de saule" and "pointes à cran" of the same epoch. Nos. 159 and 160 resemble the remarkable crescent-shaped implements on Plate 8, but are straight.

PLATE 8.

Nos. 172, 173, large crescent-shaped "pointes à cran," use unknown. No. 178 is a "lame pointue." Nos. 174 to 183 are peculiar Fayum arrowheads or javelin heads called "pointes à cran" and are somewhat waterworn and polished by friction and use. No. 184 in Plate 8 to 198 on Plate 9 are saws, now thought by M. Maspero and others to have been fixed in wooden handles like a sickle. Some are not toothed, and No. 191 is a rare form. No. 182 is a saw, not toothed, but probably equally effective.

PLATE 9.

Figures 194 to 198 are the continuation of the series of saws shown on Plate 8. No. 198 strongly resembles the implement on Plate 11 (No. 246), but the latter is very carefully worked and not toothed. Nos. 199 and 200 are implements purchased from Arabs and were apparently reworked by them to present a more salable appear-

ance. The patination, which is sometimes extraordinary, proves their antiquity. Nos. 201 to 213, whether arrow or javelin heads, are of rare, varied, and practically unfamiliar types. No. 214 is unique.

PLATE 10.

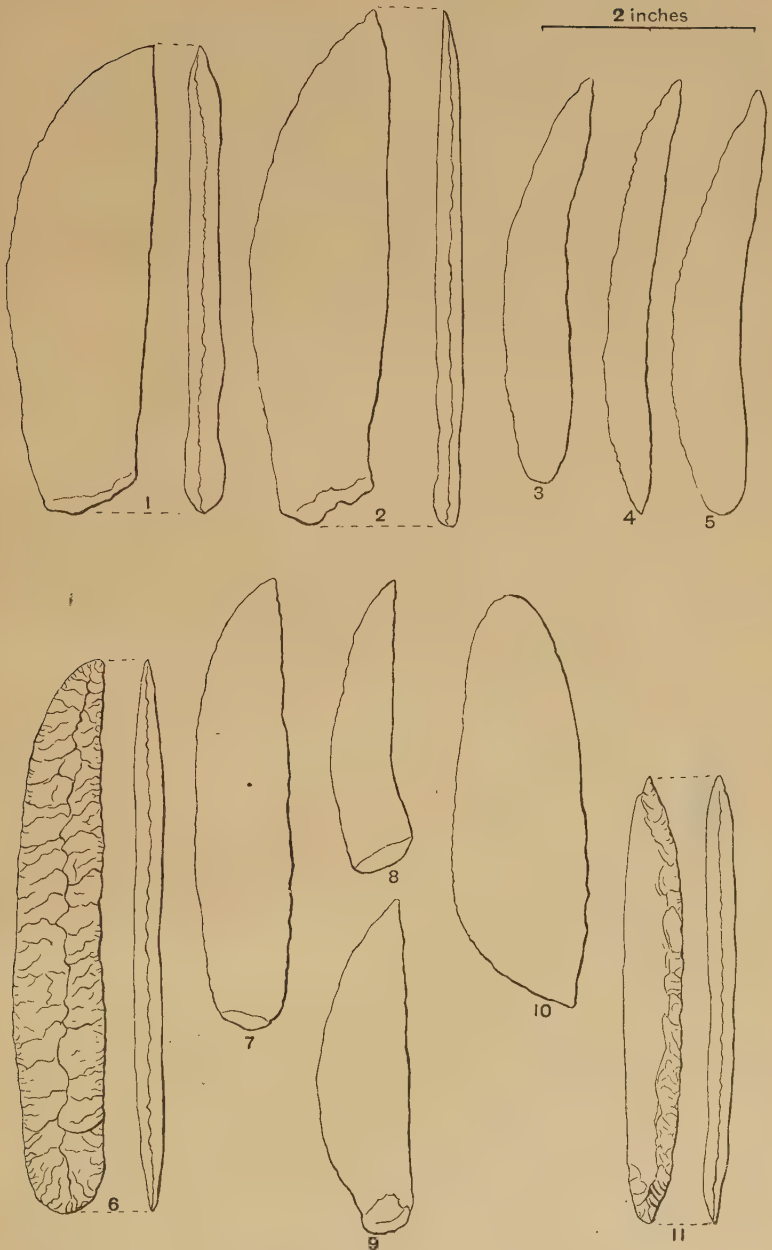
These are large and remarkable forms of arrows.

PLATE 11.

Nos. 237 and 238 are rare forms, of which one example was found and figured by Beadnell. No. 239 is unique and is perhaps a "grattoir," combined with a borer, like the "poinçon Solutréen," Nos. 243, 244, 245 are butt ends of similar ones. Nos. 241 and 242 are somewhat similar to each other, and have therefore been placed together. They were probably used for boring wood, as the cutting edge is worked only on one side. No. 240 has the concave part at the end very carefully worked. Nos. 246 and 249 are flakes beautifully worked into knives. Larger examples of these, struck off as a single flake from the block and delicately serrated, are shown in the Cairo Museum. No. 250 is a knife with rounded ends.

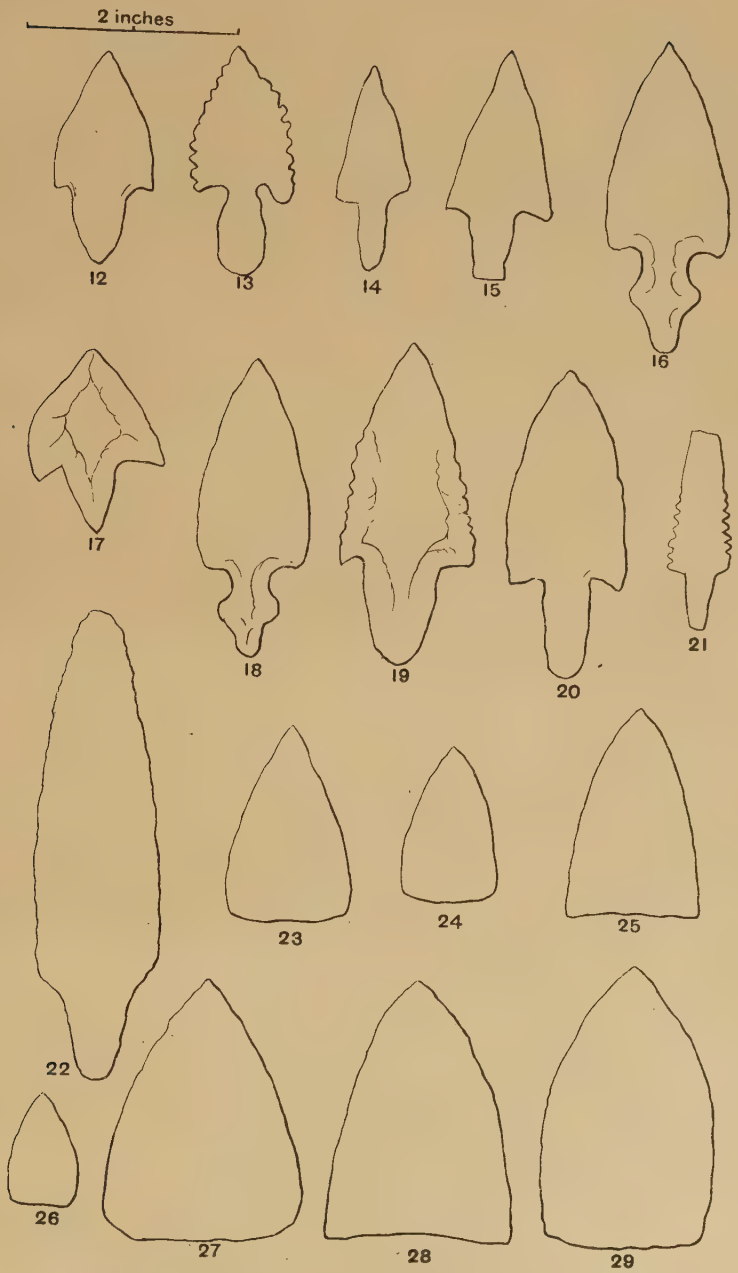
PLATE 12.

An example of No. 251 was found and figured by Beadnell in the publication previously referred to. No. 252 is a portion of a long serrated spearhead. No. 253 consists of parts of an armlet, similar to those discovered in Wadi esh-Sheikh, and figured in the Liverpool Museum Bulletin, as well as in Read's Guide to the Stone Age, published by the British Museum. Another example may be found in the Cairo Museum. No. 256 is a spearhead, finely worked in purple flint with white patinations. No. 257 is the same. No. 258 resembles the implements on Plate 11, but is flat on the underside, as also is No. 254. No. 259 was picked up under a large rock by a Berber boy. M. Maspero says that these are now regarded as sacrificial knives, and they are so labeled in the Cairo Museum. The serrations pointing forward to keep the handle in place, are especially to be noted.



KNIVES OF FLINT FROM THE FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 749.

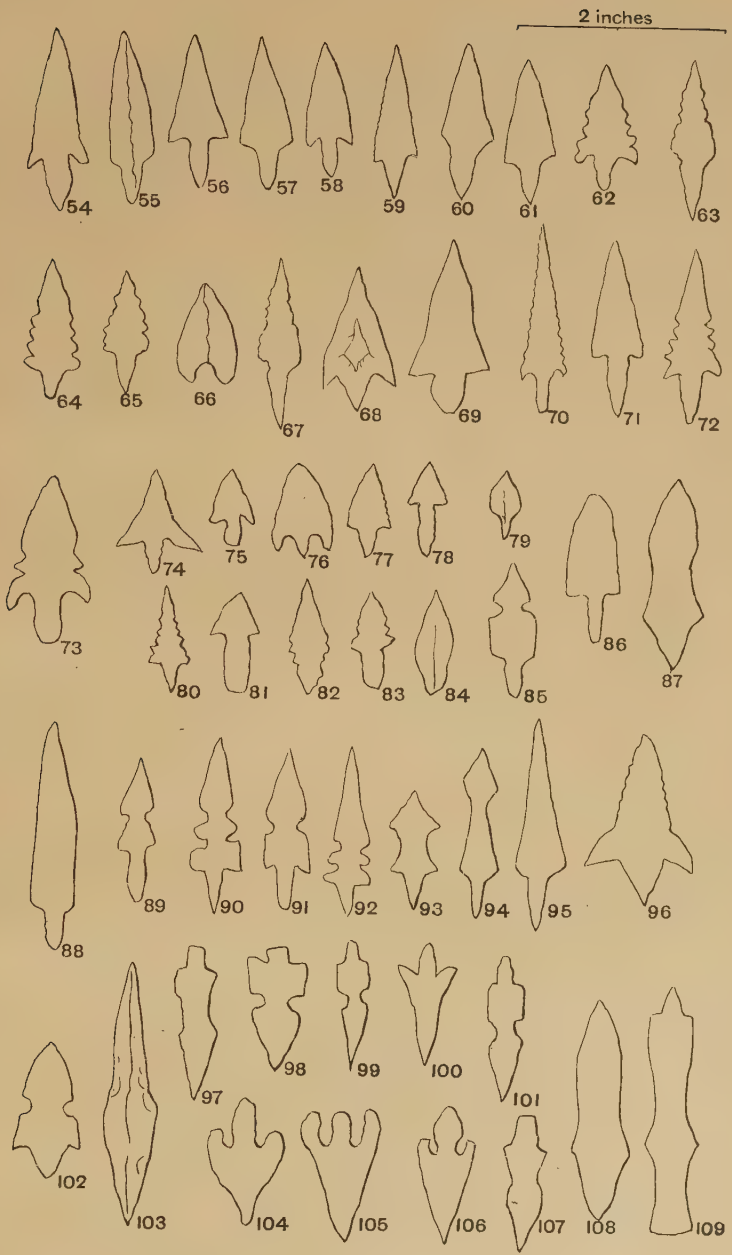


ARROWHEADS OF NEW TYPE. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 750.

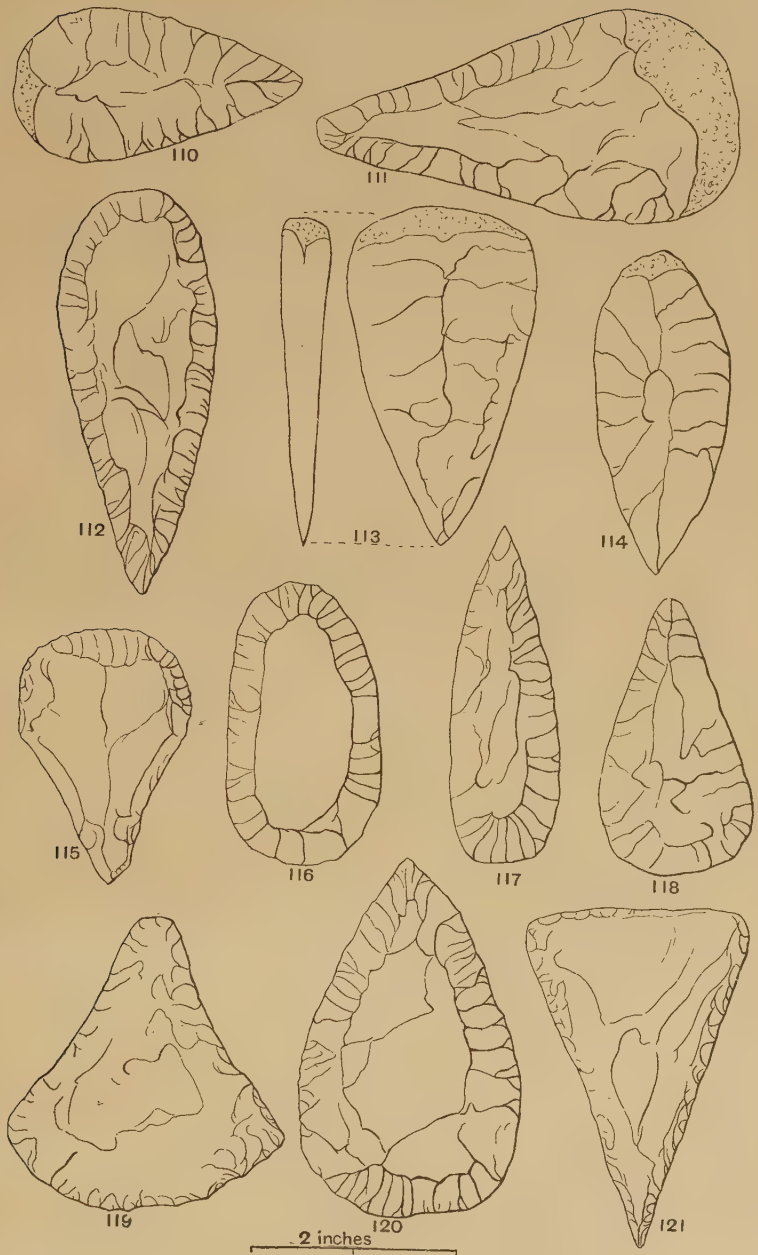
ARROWHEADS OF VARIED SHAPE. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 750.



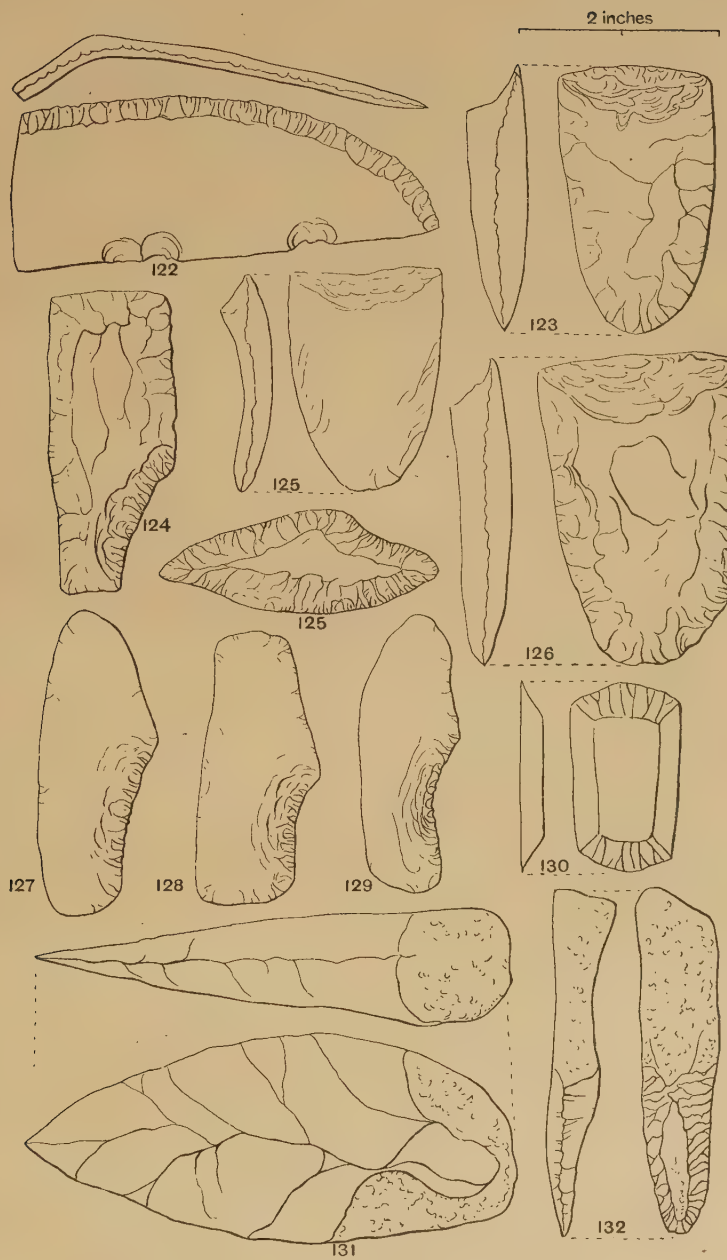
ARROWHEADS OF DIFFERENT FORMS. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 750.



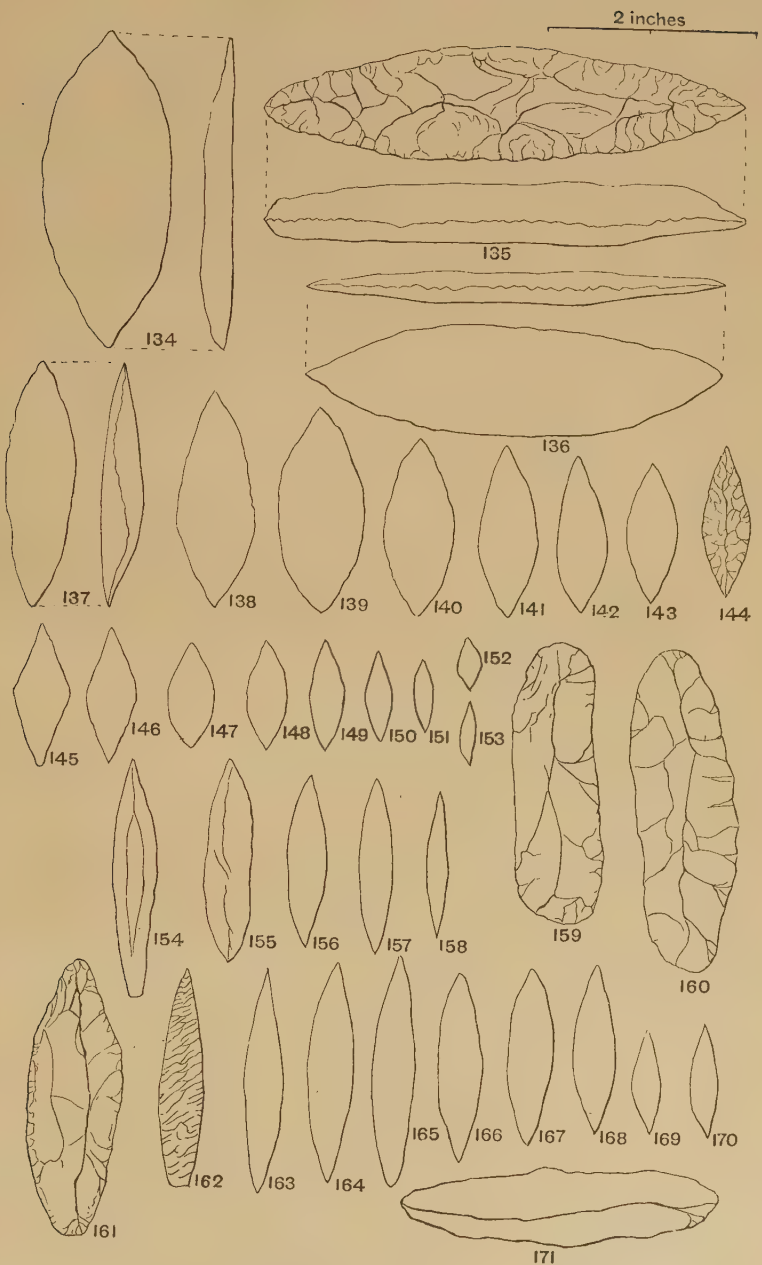
OBJECTS OF WORKED FLINT. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 750.



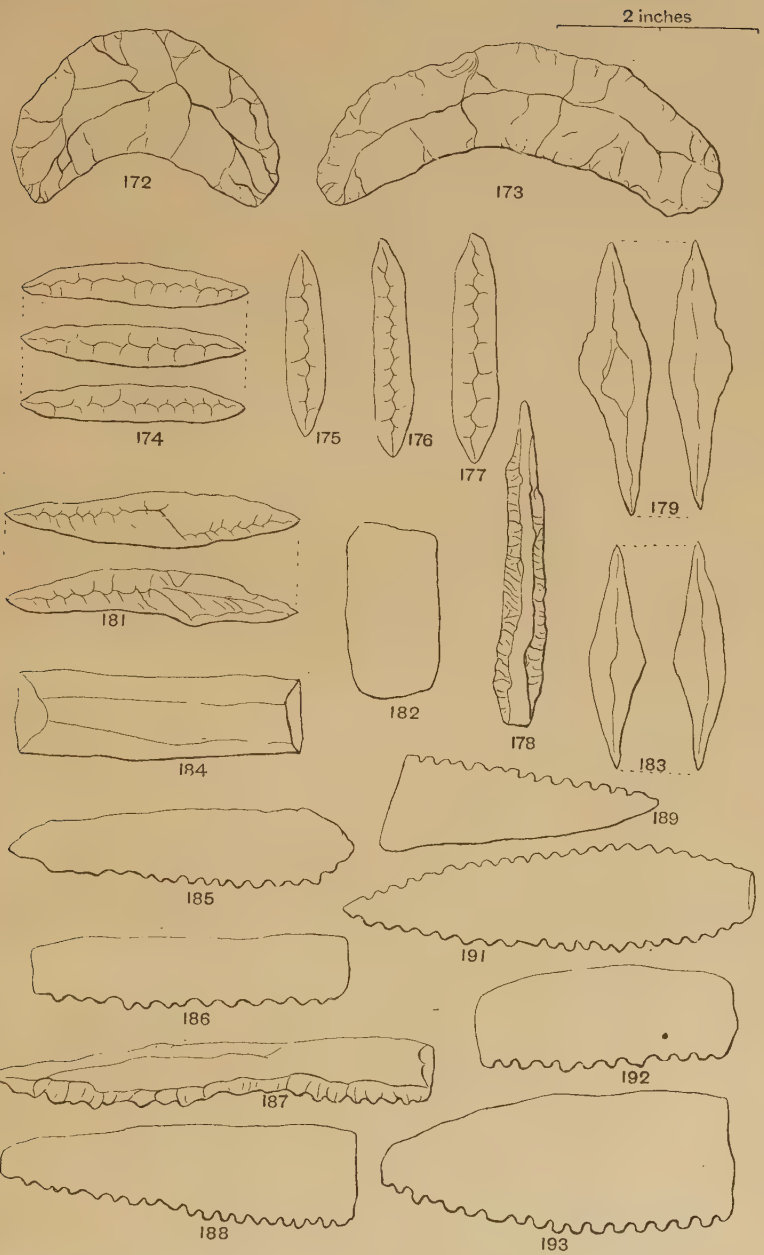
VARIOUS TYPES OF FLINT IMPLEMENTS. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 750.



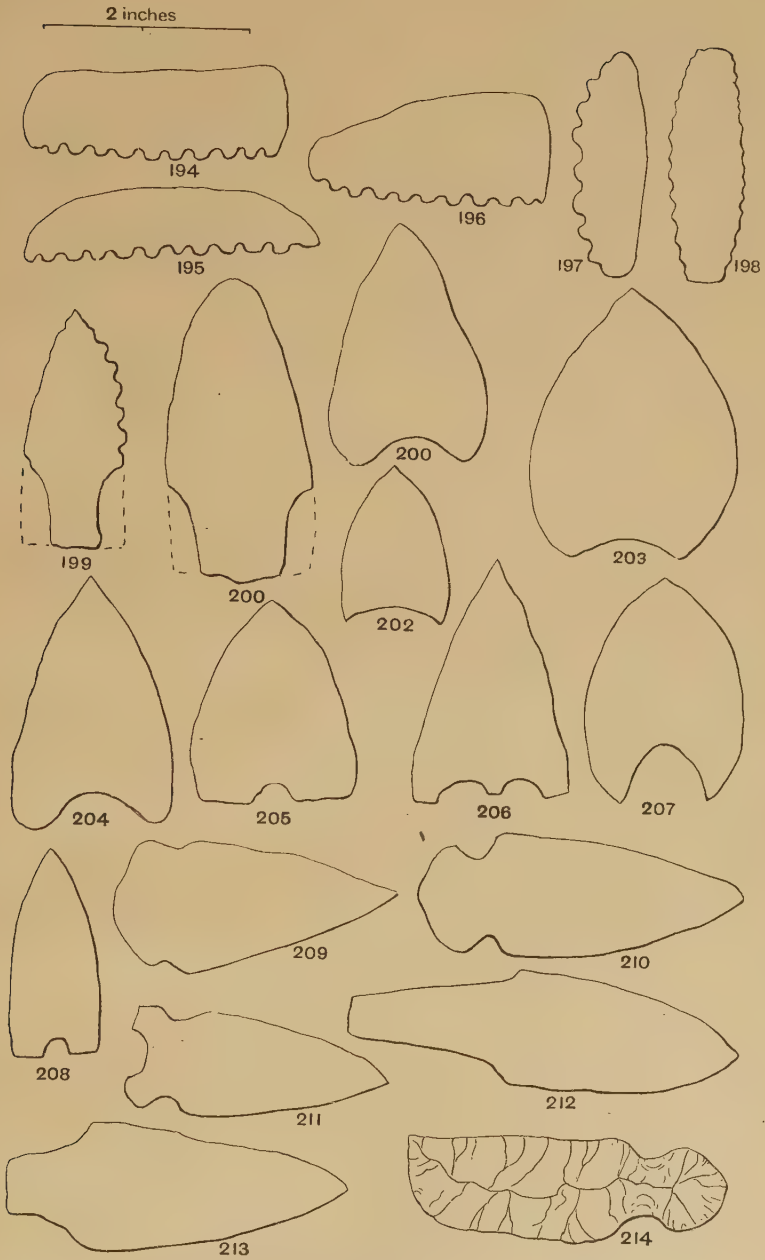
FLINT IMPLEMENTS. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 750.



ARROW AND JAVELIN HEADS, SAWS, ETC. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 750.

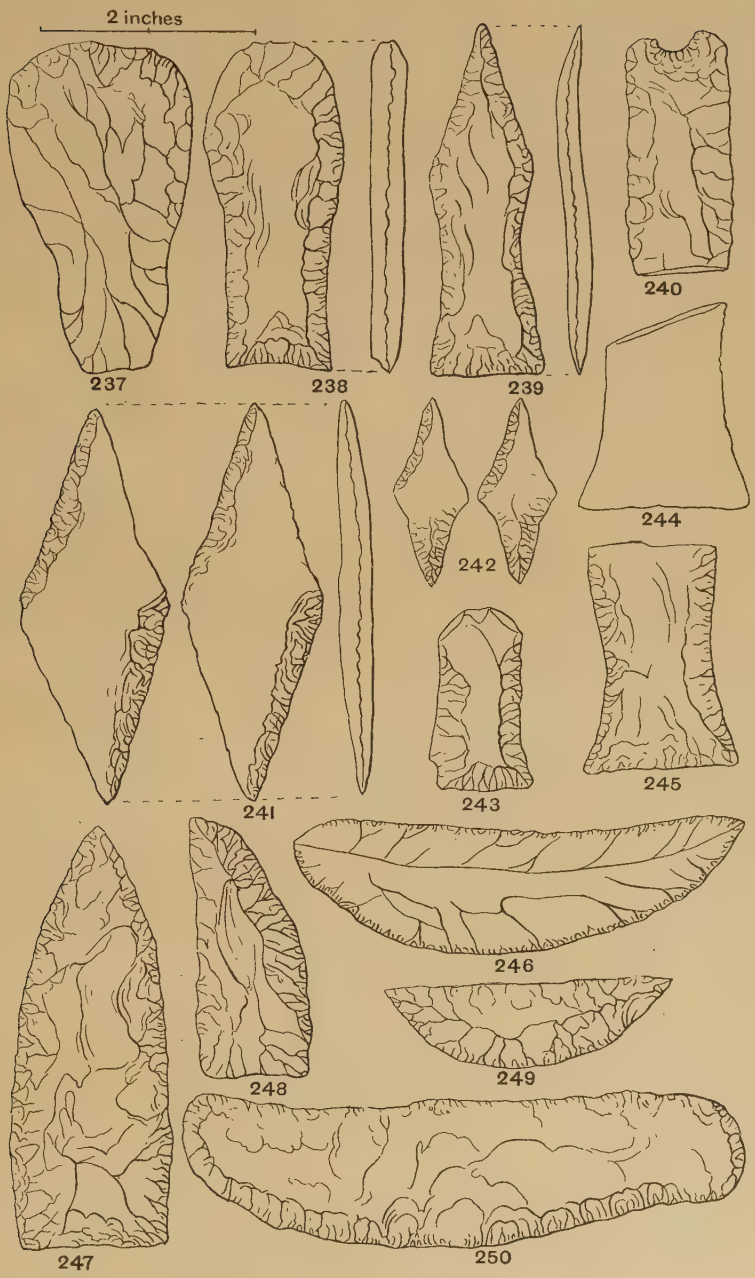


SAWS AND OTHER IMPLEMENTS OF FLINT. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGES 750, 751.

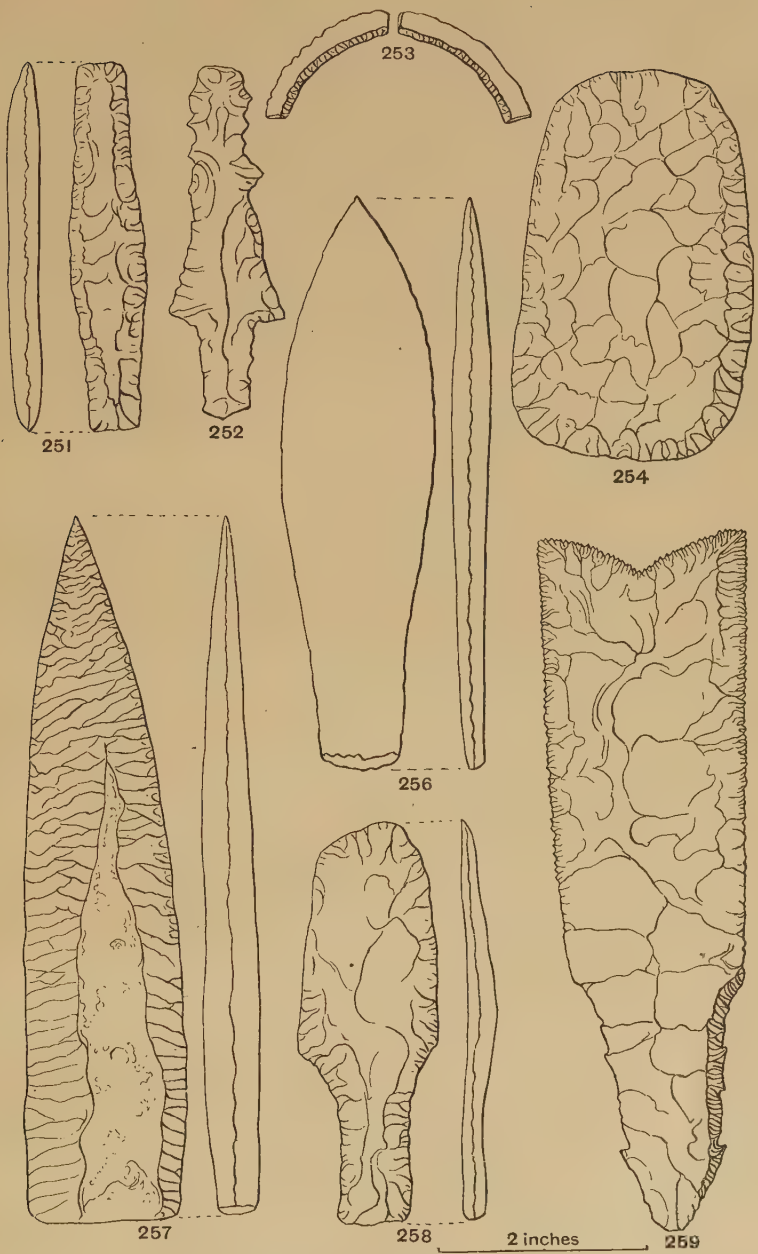
ARROWHEADS OF REMARKABLE FORM. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 751.



SCRAPERS, KNIVES, DRILLS, ETC. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 751.



SPEARHEADS, SACRIFICIAL KNIVES, ETC. FAYUM, EGYPT.

FOR EXPLANATION OF PLATE SEE PAGE 751.

INDEX.[1]

Page.

Abbott, William L., collection, number of specimens in 60
donations by, of zoological material continued 28, 77
ethnological collections received from 26, 70, 80
field work in Sumatra continued by 45
Accessions, biological 28, 79
geological 31
museum, list of 107
received annually since 1881, table showing number 33
sources of 25
Acquisitions to Museum as a result of the war with Spain 65
Act of Congress, 1846, founding Smithsonian Institution 3
Acting head curator, Department of Anthropology, attention called by, to need for help in several divisions 72
Additions to the collections 25
Adler, Cyrus, honorary assistant curator, Division of Historic Archeology 105
honorary curator, Division of Historic Religions 55, 105
librarian 106
Administrative assistant, U. S. National Museum 105
staff 107
Agriculture, Department of, Biological Survey, collection of birds' eggs and reptiles transmitted by 29
collection of Mexican fresh-water crabs received from 30
botanical accessions received from 30
natural history bureaus of, collections made by 45
specimens of insects received from 30, 85
Albany Museum, Grahamstown, South Africa, exchange received from 46
Allen, J. A., specimens sent for examination to 39
Allen, Richard A., appointed preparator in Department of Anthropology 75
Allison, Andrew, collecting outfit supplied to 45
American Ethnology, Bureau of, cooperation with 34
American Geology, Contributions to the History of, by George P. Merrill 189
American Museum of Natural History, exchange received from 29, 70, 82
American Oriental Society, annual meeting of, held in lecture hall 49
American Ornithologists' Union, committee on nomenclature, bird collection consulted by 40
Americanists, Congress of, delegate to 55
Ames, Oakes, specimens of orchids loaned to 43, 90
Anderson, E. M., collection of lepidoptera presented to Museum by 30, 84

[1] As an index to Dr. G. P. Merrill's paper, Contributions to the History of American Geology (this volume, pp. 189–734), was specially prepared by its author and appears at the close of his paper (pp. 717–734), the titles in that paper are omitted in this index.

	Page.
Andrews, Wells F., Division of Ethnology consulted by	71
Annual Report of the Smithsonian Institution for 1901, published	157
1902, published	157
U. S. National Museum, scope	11
when first printed as a separate volume of Smithsonian Report	11
Anthropology, Department of, changes in the organization of	74
collections, care of	66
exhibition and study series	68
collection in	36
explorations	66
gifts to museum for	61
inside storage employed in	34
installation	68
models made under the supervision of	69
plans for future development	72
policy of	72
purchases by	63
report of acting head curator on	61
researches	38, 70
specimens acquired by, through exchange	64
total number of specimens added to	26
transfers and loans by	64
usefulness of	70
visiting investigators to	39
work accomplished in laboratories of	34
of the year	61
Appendix I	105
II	107
III	157
IV	185
to report for 1901, papers contained in	50
1902, papers contained in	50
Appropriation, special, for construction of new National Museum building	21
Appropriations and expenditures	21
for fiscal year ending June 30, 1904, table showing	21
for fiscal year ending June 30, 1905, table showing	22
Arabs, quickness of, in finding flint implements in the sand	749
Archeological collection purchased	26
objects obtained by Dr. Fewkes transferred to the Museum	27
Archeology, accessions in	63, 64
Army Medical Museum, cooperation of	53
specimens for division of physical anthropology transferred from	27, 65
School, United States, closing exercises of, held in lecture hall	48
Arnold, Ralph, Pacific coast pectinidæ studied by	41, 90
title and notice of paper by	161
Ashmead, William H., assistant curator, Division of Insects	105
classification of hymenoptera continued by	41
Classification of the Chalcid flies, published by	41
generic revision of the hymenoptera published by	41
in charge, Section of Hymenoptera	105

Page
Ashmed, William H., Japanese and Philippine hymenoptera worked up by.. 41
papers by, published 41, 93
titles and notices of papers by 161, 162, 163
Assistant Secretary, in charge of the U. S. National Museum 105
of Smithsonian Institution 3, 105
Attwater, H. P., jaguar purchased from 81
Authors in bibliography, list of 183
Aymé, L. H., collecting outfit supplied to 45
Bailey, Vernon, bird collections consulted by 90
collection of plants made in New Mexico by 30, 85
reptiles from Texas identified by, in conjunction with Leonhard Stejneger 40, 90
paper on the reptile fauna of Texas by 81
Baird, Spencer F., activities of 4
Baker, Carl F., collection of diptera presented by 84
title and notice of paper by 163
Baker, Frank, collecting outfit supplied to 45
Baltimore Geographical Society, specimens obtained as the result of the expedition sent out by the 29
Banda (United Provinces of India) flint implements procured in 749
Bangs, Outram, specimens of mammals sent to 40
title and notice of paper by 163
Banks, Nathan, custodian Section of Arachnida 106
papers published by 41
researches conducted by 41
titles and notices of papers by 163
Barlow, J. W., specimens of birds' eggs presented by 29, 82
Bartlett, S. P., collecting outfit supplied to 45
Bartsch, Paul, account of the herons living in the District of Columbia by 41, 93
aid, Division of Mollusks 105
descriptions of new species of scissurella and sonorella published by 41, 93
note on limax by 41, 93
publications by 93
title and notice of joint paper by 168, 169
titles and notices of papers by 163
work on the family pyramidellidæ continued by 41, 93
Bassler, R. S., researches on the Rochester shale bryozoa continued by 44, 104
resignation of 56, 104
title and notice of joint paper by 182
Bather, F. A., suggestion by 16
Beadnell, H. J., reference to paper by 747
Bean, Barton A., assistant curator, Division of Fishes 105
Beaufort, North Carolina, visited by 79
expedition to the Bahamas accompanied by 29, 44, 79
fishes from the Bahama Islands reported on by 40, 92
notes on material from North Carolina and the Barbados prepared by 40, 93
specimens obtained by the Senff expedition identified by... 40, 93
titles and notices of papers by 164
zoological collection in the Bahama Islands, made by 81
Bean, Tarleton H., honorary curator, Division of Fishes 105
Beckwith, Paul, assistant curator, Division of History 55, 105

Page.
Beckwith, Paul, card catalogue of the swords in the National Museum prepared by 70
catalogue of ancient coins begun by 38, 70
descriptive catalogue of the Grant relics in Museum begun by. 38, 70
flintlock pistol presented by 28, 62
time spent by, at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition examining anthropological collections 66
Beecher, C. E., specimens of Hamilton brachiopods received as a gift through . 99
Bemis, Florence E., title and notice of paper by 164
Benedict, James E., assistant curator, Division of Marine Invertebrates 106
descriptions of new albuneids by, published 42, 94
designated to act temporarily as chief of exhibits 94
revision of the genus lepidopa by, published 42, 93
studies on anomouran crustaceans continued by 42, 94
titles and notices of papers by 164
Benjamin, Marcus, editor 106
title and notice of paper by 164
Berger, A., material received in exchange from 47
Berry, E. W., fossil plants studied by 44, 103
Bibliography, Flint Implements of the Fayum 749
National Museum 157
number of authors represented in 51, 183
total number of papers cited in 51
Biological Society of Washington, lectures given under auspices of 48
Survey, Department of Agriculture, bird collection consulted by ... 40
birds' eggs and reptiles transmitted by 29, 81
collection of Mexican freshwater crabs received from ... 30, 84
collections made by 45
members of, specimens of mammals sent to 40
Biology, Department of, accessions 79
birds 82
birds' eggs 81
fishes 82
herbarium 28
insects 28
lower invertebrates 83
mollusks 79
plants 85
reptiles 82
botanical specimens received, number of 77
cooperation of specialists and loan of collections 89
crowded condition in 78
distribution of surplus material 90
exhibition collections 78
explorations 79
important investigations in 38
improvement made in collections of 35
increase in accessions 77
laboratory use of the collections by investigators 90
limited storage and laboratory quarters in 35

Page.
Biology, Department of, number of accessions 28
personnel 94
report of head curator on 77
scientific researches and investigations 39, 91
total number of specimens added to 26
work of fiscal year 1903–4 77
on study series 86
birds 86
birds' eggs 86
fishes 87
insects 87
mammals 86
marine invertebrates 88
mollusks 87
National Herbarium 88
reptiles and batrachians 86
zoological specimens received, number of 77
Birds, Division of, accessions 82
overcrowded quarters and lack of assistance in 86
specimens obtained by exchange 82
work on study series 86
Birds' eggs, accessions 79
collection of, much improved 86
Blackwelder, Eliot, collecting outfit supplied to 46
collection of birds consulted by 40
Blaisdell, F. E., specimens of coleoptera loaned to 42, 89
Blaney, Dwight, series of shells donated by 29, 83
Böhm, Julius, material obtained in exchange from 47
Boston Museum of Fine Arts, casts donated by and purchased from the 27
Botanical staff, Department of Agriculture, collections in division of plants consulted by 43
Bowdish, B. S., title and notice of paper by 164
Branch, H. Selwyn, collection of bats and birds purchased from 81
Brezina, D. Aristides, material obtained in exchange from 47
Briceño, M. S., purchases in Department of Biology from 81
British Museum of Natural History, exchange received from 46, 82
Britton, N. L., investigations conducted by in conjunction with J. N. Rose 43
title and notice of joint paper by 164
Brockett, Paul, custodian, Division of Graphic Arts 75, 105
plans of, to enlarge the study series in graphic arts 73
Brockway, William, collecting outfit supplied to 46
Brown, E. J., reptiles of southern Florida presented by 29
Brown, Gen. Jacob, sword belonging to, presented by Nathan Brown Chase 27, 62
Brown, Mrs. John Crosby, specimens acquired through exchange with 64
Brown, N. C., series of birds donated by 29, 82
Brown, S. C., registrar 106
Browne, Cecil Seymour, material obtained in exchange from 47
Brues, C. T., collection of diptera presented by 84
Buddha or a bodhisattva, description of 741
reclining, description of 740
seated upon a lotus, description of 740
the lotus throne, description of 741
sitting in meditation, description of 740

	Page.
Buddha standing in a small pagoda, description of	741
on the lotus, description of	740
three figures of, description of	741
doctrines (Dharma)	738
Buddhism, history of the spread of	739
the founder of	735
Buddhist community (Sangha)	739
monks, two, holding begging bowls, description of	742
Religious Art in the National Museum, the S. S. Howland Collection of, by Immanuel M. Casanowicz	735
the collection of	740
sacred book, description of	742
saints, two, description of	742
Buildings	22
Bulletin, special, No. 4, Part II, published	49
Bureau of American Ethnology, cooperation with	34
masks and castings of Indians made at the expense of	70
objects collected by E. H. Jacobs deposited in Museum by	27
Fisheries, material transmitted by	28, 80
Ordnance, collection of firearms deposited by	28
Burrall, H. D., collecting outfit supplied to	45
Busck, August, title and notice of paper by	164
Cairo Museum, specimens of flint implements presented to	749
Calman, W. T., collection of cumacea forwarded to, for study	42, 89
Card catalogues of entire mineralogical and geological collections in course of preparation	36
Carnegie Institution, specimens of polistes lent to	42
Carnegie Museum, party sent to British Columbia by	45
Casanowicz, Immanuel M., aid, Division of Historic Archeology	105
paper by, in Report of National Museum for 1904	735
title and notice of paper by	164
Cases made during the year, number of	24
Casey, Thomas L., pleurotomidæ studied by	41, 91
Casts purchased for Department of Anthropology	64
Catlin, George, painting of, loaned by Mrs. L. C. Kinney	27
Caudell, Andrew Nelson, insects collected by	28
papers published by	41, 93
title and notice of joint paper by	170
titles and notices of papers by	164, 165
Chamberlain, L. T., collection of river mussels presented by	30, 83
Chamberlain, R. V., arachnidæ studied by	41
honorary custodian of Gems and Precious Stones, Division of Mineralogy	106
Champney, Mrs. J. Wells, information regarding the Abenaki tribe collected by	39
Chapman, Frank M., bird collection consulted by	40
title and notice of paper by	164
Chase, Nathan Brown, sword presented to Gen. Jacob Brown donated by	27
Chevallier, L., material received in exchange from	47
Chinese god of peace, description of	744
war, description of	744
Clark, A. Howard, honorary curator, Division of History	105

Page.
Clark, Austin H., title and notice of paper by 165
Clark, Hubert Lyman, the apodal holothurians studied by 42
Clark, W. B., material for study loaned to 44, 102
Clarke, F. W., honorary curator, Division of Mineralogy 106
Clarke, John M., material for study loaned to 44, 102
Clarke, Samuel Fessenden, title and notice of paper by 165
Classification of the scientific departments of the Museum, changes in 55
Cockerell, T. D. A., collection of lepidoptera from 30, 84
Cole, Leon J., specimens of pycnogonidæ sent to 43, 89
title and notice of paper by 165
Collection, The S. S. Howland, of Buddhist Religious Art in the National Museum, by Immanuel M. Casanowicz 735
Collections, additions to 25
biological, laboratory use of, by investigators 90
Department of Anthropology, care of 67
Biology 78
Geology, present condition of 103
division of, into two series 15
exhibition, Department of Anthropology 36
Biology 37, 78
general work upon the 33
loan of, and cooperation of specialists, Department of Biology 89
of Museum, bulk of 9
utilized to fullest extent 17
principal sources of, summarized 8
public, requirements of the 16
rapid growth of, resulting in confusion of arrangement 13
reserve series 16
third division of, suggested by F. A. Bather, of British Museum 16
Committee on Nomenclature of the American Ornithologists' Union, bird collection consulted by 40
Congress, erection of additional building for National Museum authorized by 12
of Americanists, delegate to 55
Contributions to the History of American Geology, by George P. Merrill 189
list of illustrations 201
prefatory note 191
table of contents 193
Cook, O. F., custodian, Section of Myriapoda 105
honorary assistant curator, Section of Cryptogamic Collections 106
Cooke, W. W., bird collections consulted by 90
Cooperation of specialists and loan of collections, Department of Biology 89
the Executive Departments of the Government 53
Coquillett, Daniel W., custodian, Section of Diptera 106
papers published by 41, 93
researches by 41
titles and notices of papers by 165, 166
Correspondence 7, 49
Court, E. J., series of land shells contributed by 29, 83
Coutière, H., alpheidæ worked up by 42
Coville, Frederick Vernon, honorary curator, Division of Plants (National Herbarium) 106
investigation carried on in the National Herbarium, reported by 91

Page.
Coville, Frederick Vernon, papers published by 43, 50
report of work done in National Herbarium by .. 88
title and notice of paper by 166
Cranford Paving Company of Washington, contract for excavation for new Museum building awarded to 13
Culin, Stewart, specimens loaned to 39, 72
Currie, Rolla Patterson, aid, Division of Insects 105
insects collected by 28
member of a party sent to British Columbia 45
papers published by 41, 93
severed connection with the Museum 50
titles and notices of papers by 166
transfer of, to the Department of Agriculture 95
Dall, William Healey, associate curator, Cenozoic Section of Invertebrate Fossils. 106
classification of the tritons and trogshells completed by. 41, 93
honorary curator, Division of Mollusks 105
material gathered and worked up by 99
publications by, conjointly with Mr. Paul Bartsch 41, 93
on mollusks by 93
review of the land and fresh-water mollusks of Alaska begun by 41, 93
reviews of the nomenclature of the pupacea completed by. 41, 93
summary of the recent and fossil land-shell fauna of the Bahamas completed by 41, 93
titles and notices of papers by 166, 167, 168, 169
work by, on invertebrate fossils 31
Daughters of the American Revolution, case of historical specimens belonging to, sent to Louisiana Purchase Exposition 72
cases arranged and labeled for contributions from 69
interest manifested in historic collections by 69
Davenport, Charles B., title and notice of paper by 109
Davenport, Homer, pheasants donated by 29, 82
Davis, C. A., shells donated by 30, 83
Derby, O. A., specimen of diamond-bearing gravel from 31, 98
Deschamps, Emile, invertebrates from Shanghai procured from 84
specimen of mouse deer purchased from 29, 82
Disbrow, William S., collection of minerals obtained through the instrumentality of 31, 98
crystal of American spodumene transmitted by 31
Disbursements from appropriations for 1901–2 22
unexpended balances of appropriations for fiscal year ending June 30, 1903, table showing 16
Distribution and exchange of specimens 46
of surplus material, Department of Biology 90
Dorsey, George A., ethnological specimens obtained through 26, 63
Duerden, J. E., material sent to, for identification and report 43, 89
Duplicate specimens, biological distribution of 90
distribution of 46
preparation of, for geological distribution 36
Duplicates, exchanges made with museums by means of 14

Page.
Dutton, Miss Maud Barrows, illustrations showing the development of primitive industries gathered in Museum by 71
photographs lent to 72
Dwight, Jonathan, jr., bird collection consulted by 40, 90
Dyar, Harrison G., custodian, Section of Lepidoptera 106
entomological publications by 41, 93
insects collected by 28
Lepidoptera of the Kootenai district of British Columbia, paper prepared by 41
member of a party sent to British Columbia 45
titles and notices of papers by 169, 170
Eastman Kodak Company, collection illustrating development of the hand camera contributed by 28, 62
Eatonian era, the 251
Editorial office, work of 52
Educational side of the Museum 10
Edwards, Charles L., the pedate holothurians worked up by 42
Edwards, Vinal N., collecting outfit supplied to 45
Egypt, Flint Implements of the Fayum, by Heywood Walter Seton-Karr 747
Egyptian Exploration Fund, knives and flint implements received from 27
Eigenmann, Carl H., fish collections consulted by 41
title and notice of paper by 170
Electric-light wiring, readjustments and extensions of 24
Elliot, D. G., specimens of mammals sent to 40
Emerton, J. H., arachnidæ studied by 41
Emery building, electric motor installed in 24
Emmons, G. T., ethnological material obtained through 26, 63
Emmons, S. F., material for study loaned to 44, 102
Entries made in catalogue books of various departments, number of 33
Eozoon question, the 635
Ethnology, Bureau of American, objects collected by E. H. Jacobs deposited in Museum by 27
of the Philippines, beginning made toward illustrating the 36
Evermann, Barton Warren, explorations in Hawaii conducted by 45
material collected by, transmitted through Bureau of Fisheries 80
Excavation of ground for new museum building, date of 23
Exchange and distribution of specimens 46
Exchanges, Department of Anthropology 64
made with other museums by means of duplicates 14
received from various museums 70
Executive Departments of the Government, cooperation of the 53
Exhibition and study series, Department of Anthropology 68
cases, number of 25
collections 16, 36
attractive features of, due to loans 14
Department of Biology 37, 78
Geology, additions to 37, 103
of invertebrate fossils, improvements made in 37
halls, crowded condition of 68
Expenditures and appropriations 21
for fiscal year ending June 30, 1904, table showing 21

	Page.
Explorations	44
Department of Anthropology	66
Biology	79
Exploring expeditions, a source of collections and information	14
Fairchild, D. G., custodian, Section of Lower Fungi	106
Fayum, district, yield of archeological material from	747
Egypt, Flint Implements of the, by Heywood Walter Seton-Karr	747
province of the, description of	747
situation of	747
Ferguson breech-loading rifle, history of	65
Fernow, B. E., honorary curator, Section of Forestry	106
Fewkes, J. Walter, archeological collection obtained by, transferred to the Museum	27, 64
collaborator, Division of Ethnology	105
collecting outfit supplied to	45
explorations conducted by	45, 66
titles and notices of papers by	170
Field Columbian Museum, exchange received from	70
Fire apparatus, improvement in	25
First Zoological Institute of the Imperial University, Vienna, Austria, exchange received from	46
Fisher, Walter K., title and notice of paper by	170
Fishes, Division of, accessions	82
collections of, consulted	41, 90
improvements in	87
work on study series	87
Flint Implements of the Fayum, bibliography	749
description of plates	749
Egypt, by Heywood Walter Seton-Karr	747
localities of	747
vicinity of	748
Flint, James M., classification and cataloguing in the Division of Medicine completed by	93
honorary curator, Division of Medicine	105
title and notice of paper by	170
Folklore, addition made to collection of	26
Folsom, Miss Cora M., researches in Department of Anthropology conducted by	71
Foote, Bruce, paleolithic workshops discovered with aid of	749
Forward, E. A., history of the Stourbridge lion studied by	39
Fossil footprints in the Connecticut Valley	625
insects, collection of in Museum, largest in United States	31
Fowke, Gerard, fieldwork in the West carried on by	45
models of Indian fire-making apparatus loaned to	72
Fowler, Henry W., title and notice of joint paper by	174
Fred Harvey Collection, baskets purchased from	63
Furniture and fixtures, work done under head of	24
Geare, R. I., chief of correspondence and documents	106
General considerations	3
work upon the collections	33
Genthe, K. W., free-swimming copepods worked up by	42
surface towings from the Woods Hole region sent to	89
Geological section across North America completed and placed on exhibition	101
Survey, United States, accessions from	31

Page.
Geological Survey, United States. collection brought together by Dr. Samuel Scudder turned over to the Museum by 99
E. O. Ulrich collection transferred to Museum by 31
series of tertiary insects transmitted by 31
specimens received from 98
transferred from, to Division of Invertebrate Paleontology 99
Geology, Contributions to the History of American, by George P. Merrill 189
Department of, accessions 31, 97
total number received 97
assistance to individuals and institutions 102
attention given to working out of fossil vertebrates from rocks in 36
changes in personnel 104
exchanges and loans 102
gifts 102
present condition of the collections 36, 103
report of head curator on 97
research work in 104
routine 100
total number of specimens added to 26
Division of, labels for exhibition series printed and distributed, number of 100
material received by 97
Physical and Chemical, Division of, accessions to 31
Gifts to Museum, anthropological 61
Gilbert, Charles H., explorations in Hawaii conducted by 45
fish collections consulted by 41
title and notice of joint paper by 170
Gilbert, Evermann, and Chamberlain, specimens collected in Alaska and Oregon by 85
Gill, Theodore N., fish collections consulted by 40
honorary associate in zoology 106
titles and notices of papers by 170, 171, 172
Gilmore, C. W., temporary appointment of 104
Girty, George H., custodian, Carboniferous, Section of Invertebrate Fossils 106
titles and notices of papers by 172
Goldman, E. A., collecting outfit supplied to 46
Goldsmith, J. S., superintendent of construction and labor 56, 106
Goode, George Brown, reference to work of 10
Graf, Theodor, heliogravures of Hellenistic portraits given by 27, 63
Green, Bernard R., in charge of construction of building for National Museum 12
Greene, Edward L., appointment of, as honorary associate in botany 56, 94, 106
botanical deposit made by 30
herbarium and botanical library deposited by 52, 77, 80
work engaged in by 43
Greer, C. S., telegraph switch presented by 28, 62
Growth and needs of the Museum 13
Grubbs, R. B., Moro collection loaned by 26, 66
Hahn, Walter L., aid, Division of Mammals 56, 105
Hampson, Sir George, Norwegian lepidoptera presented by 30, 84
Handlirsch, Anton, material for study loaned to 44, 102

Page.
Harris, I. H., archeological specimens secured through bequest to the Museum by 27, 62
Harris, J. R., collecting outfit supplied to 46
Harvey, Fred, Collection, material transferred from, to the Division of Physical Anthropology 27
Hassall, Albert, parts of an index catalogue of medical and veterinary zoology published by, in cooperation with C. W. Stiles 94
title and notice of joint paper by 181
Hatcher, J. B., study of the triceratops made by 44, 103
Haupt, Paul, appointed to represent Smithsonian Institution and National Museum at the Fourteenth International Congress of Orientalists 55
honorary curator, Division of Historic Archeology 105
Hautville, Mrs. T. C. d', sword and epaulets worn by Gen. Alex. McComb, deposited by 27, 65
Hawley, E. H., card catalogue of musical instruments planned by 74
completed by 67
Hay, W. P., diamond-back terrapins studied by 90
Helminthological collections, excellent condition of 35
finest for study purposes in the country 88
Hemphill, Henry, collection of shells purchased from 83
Henshaw, H. W., Hawaiian land shells received from 29, 83
Herbarium, U. S. National, accessions, number of 85
loans of plants from 89
work on study series 88
Herzer, H., fossil plants studied by 44, 103
High-pressure steam boilers, satisfaction given by 24
Hine, James S., diptera sent to, for scientific investigation 42, 89
Hise, C. R. Van, paper read by, at the Ninth International Geological Congress. 55
Historical collections, additions to 27
History, division of, additions to 65
of American Geology, Contributions to the, by George P. Merrill ... 189
Museum divided into three epochs 7
Hitchcock, C. H., specimens for study sent to 44, 102
Hodson, E. R., collecting outfit supplied to 45
Hofer, Miss Marie Ruef, researches in anthropological material conducted by. 39, 71
Holland, W. J., lepidoptera studied by 41
Hollerith, Herman, technological material loaned by 28, 65
Hollick, Arthur, fossil plants studied by 44, 103
Holm, Theodor, botanical material lent to 43, 90
Holmes, J. S., specimens of amphipoda sent to 43
Holmes, William H., anthropological exhibits at Louisiana Purchase Exposition under supervision of 53
archeological objects collected by, obtained by transfer from Bureau of American Ethnology 64
delegate to the Congress of Americanists 55
honorary curator, Division of Prehistoric Archeology. 56, 75, 105
monograph on the mines and quarries of the aborigines in preparation by 38, 70
reinstallation of the Division of Prehistoric Archeology planned by 73
replicas in plaster prepared under direction of 69
titles and notices of papers by 50, 172

Page.
Holway, E. W. D., collection of Mexican plants presented by 30, 85
Horgan, E. J., aid, Section of Birds' Eggs 95, 105
Hornblower and Marshall, architects for new museum building 12
Hough, Walter, assistant curator Division of Ethnology 105
ethnological and archeological objects collected by 44
field work conducted by 38, 66
monograph on the ethnology of the regions explored by Doctor Abbott in course of preparation by Professor Mason and ... 61
observations of, regarding plans for the development of Division of Ethnology 72
title and notice of paper by 50, 173
Hovey, E. O., paper read by, at the Ninth International Congress 55
Howard, Leland O., honorary curator, Division of Insects 105
papers published by 41, 93
report by, regarding the insect collection 87, 91
titles and notices of papers by 173, 174
Howdah, or saddle of the sacred white elephant, description of 744
Howell, Arthur, botanical specimens obtained in Texas by 30, 85
Howland, S. S., oriental manuscripts deposited in National Museum by 737
Howland, The S. S., Collection of Buddhist Religious Art in the National Museum, by Immanuel M. Casanowicz 735
Hrdlicka, Ales, assistant curator, Division of Physical Arthropology 105
measurements on negro children and Indians made by 70
recommendations by 73
researches in physical anthropology conducted by 38, 70
the possibility of a comprehensive biological survey of the people of the United States, attention called to, by 73
titles and notices of papers by 174
value and effect of preservatives on the excised brain tested by . 70
Hyatt, Alpheus, collection of achatinellas sent to 41
title and notice of paper by 174
Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg, series of fossils presented by . 32, 99
Implements, Flint, of the Fayum, Egypt, by Heywood Walter Seton-Karr ... 747
Indian basketry, addition made to collection of 26
Insects, collection of, progress made in 35
division of, accessions 30, 84
number of 84
papers published by staff of 41
scientific work in 93
use of the collection by investigators 91
work on study series 87
Installation of exhibits, Department of Anthropology 68
International Congress of Orientalists, Fourteenth, representative of Smithsonian Institution and National Museum to 55
Zoology, Sixth, delegates appointed to 55
Congresses 55
Geological Congress, Ninth, representative of the Smithsonian Institution and National Museum to 55
total attendance at the, from United States 55
Invertebrate fossils, distribution 101
Paleontology, Division of, accessions 31, 99

Page.
Invertebrates, Lower, Division of, accessions 83
Jacobs, E. H., objects collected by, deposited in Museum by Bureau of American Ethnology 27
Jambunathan, N. S., material obtained in exchange from 30, 47, 84
Japanese porcelain figures, description of 744
shark, specimen of, purchased 29
Jenings, Foster H., title and notice of paper by 174
Jenkins, O. P., explorations in Hawaii conducted by 45
Johnson, R. S., collecting outfit supplied to 45
Jonassohn, Oscar T., series of artificial stones, gift from 31, 98
Jordan, David Starr, fish collections consulted by 41
titles and notices of joint papers by 174
Karr, W. W., disbursing clerk 106
Kearfott, W. D., lepidoptera studied by 41
King of Burma, bed of the, description of 744
cabinet of the, description of 744
saddle of the, description of 744
Kinney, Mrs. Louise Catlin, oil painting of George Catlin loaned by 27, 65
Kirk, Edwin G., specimens for study loaned to 44, 102
Kishinouye, K., specimens of Japanese precious coral presented by 30, 83
Klages, Edward A., collection of Venezuelan beetles presented by 30, 84
Kloss, C. B., birds obtained by 40
Knowles, W. A., property clerk (acting) 106
Knowlton, Frank H., custodian of Mesozoic Plants, Section of Paleobotany .. 106
Kongelige Fredericks Universitet, Christiana, Norway, exchange received from 46
Kunz, George F., specimens for study sent to 44, 102
Labeling of exhibits inadequate 68
Labels, case and specimen, preparation of, Department of Anthropology 68
Division of Geology, number of, printed and distributed 100
for musical instruments, Department of Anthropology 67
printed for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition 68
Laboratory use of the collections by investigators, Department of Biology 90
Langley, Samuel P., ceremony by, on occasion of excavation for new Museum building 13
Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, keeper ex officio. 105
Laramie question, the 647
Lectures and meetings 48
large attendance at 48
Leland Stanford Junior University, Japanese species of fishes received from .. 29
Levinson, G. M. R., exchange from the Zoological Museum of the University of Copenhagen through 99
Lewis and Clark Exposition, appropriations for 55
Library, Museum, additions to 52
books catalogued, number of 52
bound volumes, number of 52
cards added to the authors' catalogue, number of 52
need for maintaining, on better basis 18
pamphlets catalogued, number of 52
parts of periodicals catalogued, number of 52
unbound volumes, number of 52
List of accessions 107
authors in bibliography 183

Page.
Loan of collections, Department of Biology 43, 89
material for study, Department of Geology 44, 102
Loans declined on account of lack of room 14
Department of Anthropology 64
exhibition collections owe many attractive features to 14
Louisiana Purchase Exposition, anthropological exhibit 54
biological exhibit 54
geological exhibit 54
part taken by the Museum at the 19
Lovett, Edward, specimens received through exchange with 64
Lowe, H. N., Californian shells presented by 29, 83
collection of crustaceans presented by 30, 83
Lucas, Frederic A., acting curator, Section of Vertebrate Fossils 106
appointed curator in chief of the museum of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences 56
connection with the Museum staff severed 56, 94, 104
curator, Division of Comparative Anatomy 106
material from the collection of vertebrate paleontology utilized by 44
the stegosaur remains studied by 103
titles and notices of papers by 174, 175
Lyon, Marcus Ward, jr., aid, Division of Mammals 105
chief special agent for the exhibit of Smithsonian Institution and National Museum at Louisiana Purchase Exposition 56
revision of hares and their allies completed by 39, 92
the genera and subgenera, based on osteological characters, published by 92
title and notice of paper by 175
Macleod, Mr., paleolithic workshops discovered with the help of 749
Maclurean era, the 207
McComb, Gen. Alexander, sword and epaulets worn by, deposited 27
McDougal, D. T., title and notice of joint paper by 166
McGregor, Richard C., Philippine insects received from 30, 84
titles and notices of papers by 175
McGuire, J. D., collaborator, Division of Prehistoric Archeology 56, 75, 105
McKim, C. E., historical apparatus presented by Pennsylvania Railroad Company through 62
McKinlay, W. E. W., resources of the Department of Anthropology utilized by 39, 71
McKnew, C. A., aid, Division of Fishes 95, 105
McLean, Donald, specimen of fossil skull presented by 33, 100
Maddren, Alfred G., collecting outfit supplied to 46
Mammals, Division of, accessions 29, 81
excellent condition of collections 86
work on the study series 86
Marine Invertebrates, Division of, accessions 30
cataloguer employed to bring up the records of various series 88
distribution of duplicate specimens, States represented in 88, 90
improved condition of collections in 35
loan of material from 89
Marshall, Henry, reference to death of 57, 95

Page
Marshall, William B., aid, Division of Mollusks 105
title and notice of paper by 175
Masks and castings prepared for Museum exhibit and for exchange 70
Mason, Otis Tufton, acting head curator, Department of Anthropology 61, 105
curator, Division of Ethnology 105
gift to Museum library by 52
monograph on the ethnology of the regions explored by Doctor Abbott, in course of preparation by Doctor Hough and 61
report on the Department of Anthropology by 61
title and notice of paper by 50, 175
Material transmitted to students and investigators outside of the Museum 72
Matsamura, S., series of Japanese hymenoptera presented by 30, 84
Maxon, William R., aid, Section of Cryptogamic Collections 106
botanical field work carried on by 44
ferns from the Philippines received special attention from 43, 94
titles and notices of papers by 175
Mayer, Alfred Goldsborough, collection of achatinellas turned over to, for investigation 41
Maynard, George C., assistant curator, Division of Technology 105
history of firearms engaged on by 39
investigations by, of the history of the locomotive "Stourbridge Lion" 39, 66
plan of 73
title and notice of paper by 175
Mearns, Edgar A., collecting outfit supplied to 46
ethnological and historical collections from the Philippine Islands presented by 26, 62
mammals, birds, and mollusks donated by 29, 81
scientific work continued by 26
work conducted in the Philippine Islands by 45
Meetings and lectures 48
Merriam, C. Hart, honorary associate in zoology 106
lecture on the Coast Region of Alaska delivered by 48
Merrill, George P., Contributions to the History of American Geology 189
curator, Division of Physical and Chemical Geology 106
geological specimens obtained by 45
head curator, Department of Geology 106
report by 97
Mexico visited by 79
report on stone quarries completed by 43
titles and notices of papers by 175, 176
trips made by 102
work of a survey relating to the building and ornamental stones of North Carolina supervised by 43
Meteorite collection, additions made to 31, 98
Meyncke, O. M., collecting outfit supplied to 45
Military Academy, U. S., specimens connected with the military life of General Sherman lent to, upon request of P. T. Sherman 72
Miller, Gerrit S., jr., assistant curator, Division of Mammals 105
delegate to the Sixth International Congress of Zoology 45, 55, 94
detailed to make faunal collections in the Swiss and Italian Alps 79

Page.
Miller, Gerrit S., jr., new genus and species of gibbon named by 80
papers prepared by 39, 92
by, printed in other publications than those of the Institution 51
studies on mammals from the Malay Archipelago continued by 39, 92
titles and notices of papers by 176
work on a reclassification of the cheiroptera continued by 92
classification of bats continued by 39
Mineralogical and geological collections, card catalogues of, in course of preparation 36, 101
Mineralogy, Division of, accessions 31, 98
routine work in 101
Models and replicas, Department of Anthropology 69
of the ruined buildings of Mexico and Yucatan completed and installed with exhibit prepared for St. Louis Exposition 69
Mollusks, attention given to 35
Division of, accessions 83
work on the study series 87
Mooney, James, fieldwork in the West conducted by 45
Moore, Clarence B., title and notice of paper by 176
Moore, G. T., custodian, Section of Lower Algæ 106
Morris, E. L., specimens studied by 43
Morris, George E., specimens of isopod crustacean and branchipus presented by 84
Mortensen, T. H., specimens of echini and isopods loaned to 43
Museum building, number of visitors to, during fiscal year 1903–4 47
since the opening in 1881, table showing 48
table showing attendance during each month of past year 47
growth and needs of the 13
in Manila, series of birds secured by exchange with 29
library, additions to 52
bound volumes, number of 52
unbound papers, number of 52
of Comparative Zoology, Cambridge, Mass., specimens of crabs received through exchange with 84
Natural History, Paris, France, exchange received from 46
the Imperial University, Moscow, Russia, exchange received from 46
publications 49
of, and of members of staff, table classifying according to subjects 51
staff 105
explorations 44
papers by members of, printed in publications other than those of the Museum 51
primary work of 33
Museums with which exchanges are contemplated, list of 69
Musical instruments, addition made to collection of 26
exhibit of, divisions of 67
time spent in labeling 67
Nansen, H. J., specimens loaned to 43

Page.
National Academy of Sciences, annual meeting of, held in lecture hall 49
Herbarium. (*See* Herbarium.)
Institute 4
Museum building, laborers employed in, number of 25
repairs in interior of 23
unsatisfactory condition of roof of 23
of Brazil, material received from 30, 83
the S. S. Howland Collection of Buddhist Religious Art in the, by Immanuel M. Casanowicz 735
U. S., accessions, list of 107
received annually since 1881, table showing 33
actively concerned in the development of the welfare of the country 15
additions to the collections 25
administrative staff 106
appropriation, special 21
appropriations and expenditures 21
for fiscal year ending June 30, 1904 21
1905 22
as a museum of record 7
research 9
an educational museum 10
Assistant Secretary of Smithsonian Institution in charge of 3, 105
Bernard R. Green in charge of construction of building for new 12
bibliography 157
list of authors in 161
chief aim of 15
collections, bulk 9
of, utilized to fullest extent 16
principal sources of, summarized 8
cooperation of the executive departments of government 53
correspondence 49
date of general employment of name 5
depositary for all Government collections 15
desirability of extension of hours in opening the 19
disbursements from unexpended balances of appropriations for fiscal year ending June 30, 1903 22
distribution and exchange of specimens 46
duplicate specimens 6
employees of, for technical work 17
erection of additional building for the, authorized by Congress 12
exhibition collections 36
expenditures and appropriations 21
ending June 30, 1904, table showing 21
explorations 45
expositions 53
general considerations 3
work upon the collections 33

Page.
National Museum, U. S., history of, divided into three epochs 7
insufficient staff of 16
library 52
loans 14
maintenance 6
management 6
means required by, for acquiring special collections .. 15
necrology 56
needs of 18
no parallel in the world 17
number of entries of specimens in record books of, at close of 1904 9
number of entries of specimens in record books of, immediately preceding the Centennial Exhibition of 1876 8
objects of, defined 7
operations of year, summary 21
organization 55
origin of 3
packed condition of storerooms of 9
papers by officers of, and others based wholly or in part upon the national collections 161
part taken by, at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition 19
primary object of a 15
publications 6, 49
list of 157
papers published in separate form 157
report on Department of Anthropology 61
Biology 77
Geology 97
reports of head curators 59
researches 38
scope of, defined 6, 7
specimens, classification 6
distribution and exchange of 633
in record books of, in 1884 9
staff 105
subjects best represented 6
visitors 47
Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution, relics deposited by 29
surveys, the era of, or fifth era of State surveys 551
Naval Medical School, U. S., graduating exercises of, held in lecture hall 48
Navas, R. P. Longin, material obtained in exchange from 47
Navy Department, objects of interest presented by 53
Nedwah, Ward, collecting outfit supplied to 45
Needham, James G., title and notice of paper by 177
Neligh, John P. S., Indian textile art studied by 39, 71
Nelson, E. W., bird collections consulted by 90
lecture on A Naturalist's Winter in Mexico delivered by 48
titles and notices of papers by 177
New Museum building 12
plans for, approved by the Secretary of Smithsonian Institution 13

Page.
New Museum building, site of, inclosed 13
New York Botanical Garden, specimens received in exchange from 30, 85
Newhall, W. H., aid, Division of Physical and Chemical Geology 106
time spent by, in St. Louis 120
Nicholson, Miss Grace, classification and care of basketry studied at Museum by 71
Nomenclature committee of the American Ornithologists' Union, the validity of various species and subspecies of North American birds considered by 90
Norton, C. A. Q., title and notice of paper by 177
Nurse, Charles G., Indian hymenoptera, gift from 30
material obtained in exchange from 47
series of hymenoptera presented by 84
Nutting, Charles C., American Hydroids by, published 42, 49
title and notice of paper by 177
Oberholser, Harry C., bird collections consulted by 90
titles and notices of papers by 177
Officers of the National Museum and others, papers by, based wholly or in part upon the national collections 161
Operations of the year, summary of 21
Ordnance Office of the War Department, collection of weapons transferred to Museum by 65
Organization and staff 55
Oriental manuscripts deposited in National Museum by S. S. Howland 737
Ornamental begging bowls, description of 742
Ortmann, A. E., specimens of schizopoda sent to 43, 89
title and notice of paper by 178
Osborn, Henry F., lecture on the Evolution of the Horse delivered by 48
work on the Titanotherium of the Marsh collection continued by 44, 103
Outes, Felix F., material obtained by 27
Paine, R. G., aid, Division of Reptiles and Batrachians 105
Paleobotany, section of, accessions 100
progress made in the work of preparing card catalogue of the Lacoe collection of fossil plants 102
Palmer, William, plants collected in Newfoundland by 85
time spent by in Mexico for the purpose of making mold of meteorite 79
zoological specimens collected by 79
Papers by members of Museum staff printed in publications other than those of Museum 51
staff of the Division of Insects published 41
officers of the National Museum and others, based wholly or in part upon the national collections 161
Museum, publication of 6
published by members of Museum staff and collaborators, number of 50
in separate form 157
from Proceedings 158, 159
Report for 1901 157
1902 158
Peale, Albert C., aid, Section of Paleobotany 106
leave taken by 102
Pellegrin, A. L., nugget of silver donated by 31, 98

Page.
Pennsylvania Railroad Company, historical apparatus used on telegraph lines presented by 28, 62
Perkins, Dr. Janet, collection from the Philippine Islands loaned to 43, 89
Peyster, Gen. John Watts de, relics presented to Smithsonian Institution by .. 27, 65
Phalen, William C., collection of rocks described by 44, 104
resignation of 56, 104
titles and notices of papers by 178
trips made into Virginia by, for making collections 102
Philadelphia Centennial Exhibition of 1876 5
Philippine insular bureau of agriculture, Manila, specimens received in exchange from 30, 85
Museum at Manila, specimens of birds obtained through exchange with 82
Photographing Indians visiting Washington, work of, greatly enlarged during year 70
Photography 52
Physical Anthropology, division of, accessions 27, 65
Pilsbury, H. A., specimens of the cirripedia loaned to 43
Pinchot, Gifford, lecture on The Living Forest, delivered by 48
Piper, C. V., collection of diptera presented by the Washington Agricultural College through 84
plants from Washington State presented by 30, 85
Plans for future development, Department of Anthropology 72
Plants, Division of. (*See* Herbarium.)
accessions by purchase 31, 79
number of 30, 79, 85
activity prevailing in 36
purchases made by, from the United States 85
outside of the United States 85
rearrangement of specimens in progress in 36
sheets stamped and recorded, number of 36
specimens mounted during the year, number of 36
Plummer, Fred G., botanical specimens obtained in New Mexico and Oklahoma by 30, 85
Pohndorf, A. P., specimens of smoky quartz presented by 31, 99
Pollard, Charles Louis, connection with Museum severed by 56
extended furlough granted to 95
Prayer wheel, description of 743
Prehistoric Archeology, increased space obtained by opening hall of 67
Prentiss, Daniel Webster, title and notice of paper by 178
President, bill approved by, providing for the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the exploration of the Oregon country by Captains Lewis and Clark 55
President of the United States, collection of firearms from the Philippine Islands presented by 26, 62
Private collections, advantage of obtaining 15
Proceedings, U. S. National Museum, date of issue 50
number of papers comprised in three volumes of 50
volumes issued 12
scope 12
subjects treated of in 50

Page.
Proceedings, U. S. National Museum, Volume XXV, published 49, 157
XXVI, papers published in separate form from 158
published 49, 157
XXVII, papers published in separate form from 159
published 49, 157
Publications of the Museum 49, 157
and of the members of its staff, table classifying according to subjects 51
distribution of, amount 49
larger number issued than usual 49
Pusey, M. J., collection of Peruvian insects presented by 30, 84
Quartermaster's Department of the Army, special acknowledgments due to .. 53
Ralph, William L., honorary curator, Section of Birds' Eggs 105
specimens of birds' eggs donated by 29, 82
Rathbun, Miss Mary J., assistant curator, Division of Marine Invertebrates .. 106
monograph of the potamonidæ completed by 42, 94
paper for the Harriman Alaska expedition prepared by 42, 94
on the crabs of Hawaii prepared by 42, 94
titles and notices of papers by 178
Rathbun, Richard, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, in charge of the U. S. National Museum 105
honorary curator, Division of Marine Invertebrates 106
report by 3
titles and notices of papers by 178
Ravenel, W. de C., administrative assistant 105
material for investigation loaned to 72, 102
title and notice of paper by 178
Raymond, P. E., specimens for study sent to 44
Rehn, James A. G., specimens of mammals lent to 42, 89
orthoptera lent to 42, 89
titles and notices of papers by 176, 178
Religious Art in the National Museum, The S. S. Howland Collection of Buddhist, by Immanuel M. Casanowicz 735
Report of Charles Schuchert 185
on Department of Anthropology, by acting head curator 61
Biology, by head curator 77
Geology, by head curator 97
upon condition and progress of the U. S. National Museum during the year ending June 30, 1904 3
U. S. National Museum, date of issue 50
1901, contents 50
1902, contents 50
1901, published 49
1902, published 49
Reports of head curators 59
Reptiles and Batrachians, Division of, accessions 82
satisfactory condition of study collection of 86
Research, as a museum of 9, 10
Researches 38
Department of Anthropology 70

Page.
Researches, Department of Biology 91
Geology 104
Richardson, Miss Harriet, account of the isopods obtained on the Alaskan expedition published by 42
collaborator, Division of Marine Invertebrates 106
manual of the North American Isopoda begun by. 42
paper on the isopod crustaceans of the northwest coast furnished by 42
titles and notices of papers by 179
Richmond, Charles W., assistant curator, Division of Birds 105
identification of the Abbott collection of birds completed by 40, 92
list of birds collected by Doctor Abbott and C. B. Kloss prepared by 40, 92
notes on zoological nomenclature by 40, 92
titles and notices of papers by 179
Ridgway, Robert, Birds of North and Middle America, Volume III and part of volume IV completed by 40
curator, Division of Birds 105
papers descriptive of new genera and species of American birds by, published 40, 92
specimens borrowed by, in connection with Manual of North and Middle American Birds 86
titles and notices of papers by 179
work on the Manual of the Birds of North and Middle America continued by 91
Riley, J. H., aid, Division of Birds 105
expedition to the Bahamas accompanied by 29, 44, 79
Mr. Ridgway assisted by 40, 91
notes on birds from Bahama Islands published by 40, 92
titles and notices of papers by 179
transferred to the Division of Birds 95
zoological collection in the Bahama Islands made by 81
Rio Grande do Sul, mass of amethystine quartz from 31
Rives, Col. Wright, rifle used by David Crockett lent by 28, 65
Roberts, George E., researches in Department of Anthropology made by 71
Robinson, B. L., material from Division of Plants lent to 43, 89
Robinson, Wirt, collection of bats from Cuba, and number of birds presented by. 29, 81
Rose, Joseph N., assistant curator, Division of Plants (National Herbarium).. 106
botanical field work carried on by 44
description of a new species of begonia published by 94
investigations conducted by, in conjunction with N. L. Britton 43, 94
papers by 43, 51
studies on Mexican and Central American plants continued by 43
titles and notices of papers by 179
work upon the cacti of North America begun by 43
Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, London, plants obtained through exchange with 30, 46, 85
Sibpur, Calcutta, India, exchange received from 46
Botanical Museum, Berlin, Germany, exchange received from 46
Ethnological Museum, Berlin, exchange received from 70

Page.
Royal Zoological and Anthropological-Ethnographical Museum, Dresden, Germany, exchange received from 46
Schaeffer, C., coleoptera studied by 41
Schaus, William, lepidoptera studied by 41
Scheffer, Theodore, cotypes of species of spiders donated by 85
Schlüter, W., collection of Old World mammals purchased from 29, 82
Schmidt, Frederich von, gift from Imperial Academy of Sciences through 32, 99
Schuchert, Charles, assistant curator, Division of Stratigraphic Paleontology 106
custodian, Paleozoic Section of Invertebrate Fossils 106
leave of absence granted to 102
report of 185
representative of the Smithsonian Institution and National Museum to the Ninth International Geological Congress 55
resignation of 104
time spent by, in St. Louis installing exhibits 102
titles and notices of papers by 180
valuable fossils secured by 31, 45
Schwarz, Eugene A., collection of coleoptera and lepidoptera from 30, 84
custodian, Section of Coleoptera 106
Scientific researches and investigations, Department of Biology 91
staff, members of, list 105
work, results in, during year 38
Scope and objects of Museum defined 7
Scudder, N. P., assistant librarian 106
Scudder, Samuel H., series of tertiary insects assembled by 31, 99
Secretary of Smithsonian Institution, keeper ex officio 105
papers written by Museum staff, printed in publications other than those of Museum by permission of 51
plans for new Museum building approved by 13
Seton-Karr, Heywood Walter, Egyptian stone implements presented by 27, 61
on Flint Implements of the Fayum, Egypt 747
paper by, in Report of National Museum for 1904 747
Sharpe, Richard W., the ostracoda worked up by 42
title and notice of paper by 180
Shattuck, G. B., expedition to Bahamas under direction of 44
Shaw, George R., specimens of pine lent to 90
Sherman, P. T., specimens connected with the military life of General Sherman loaned to U. S. Military Academy upon request of 72
Sherrington, C. S., researches conducted by 39, 70
Sickler, F. M., specimen of pink spodumene presented by 31, 98
Skinner, Henry, coleoptera studied by 41
Smillie, T. W., assistance rendered by, to the Civil Service Commission 53
custodian, Section of Photography 105
photographic work done by, under direction of the Secretary 53
report by 52
Smith, Eugene A., cut turquoise presented by 31, 98
Smith, Hugh M., collection of Japanese reptiles presented by 29, 40
explorations in Japan by 45
title and notice of paper by 180

Page.
Smith, J. B., lepidoptera studied by 41
Smithson, James, mineralogical cabinet of 4
Smithsonian building, Archeological Hall, repairs in 24
repairs on roof of 24
visitors 47
fund in 1846 3
Institution, act of Congress of 1846, founding of 3
Snyder, John Otterbein, title and notice of joint paper by 174, 180
Solberg, Ole, customs of Hopi Indians studied by 39, 71
Special bulletin, U. S. National Museum, No. 4 (Part II), published 157
Specimens, acquisition of, by purchase restricted owing to small appropriation. 25
approximate number of, received by Museum during year recorded by subjects, table showing 32
distribution and exchange of 46
of, for study, number of 38, 46
drawers made during the year, number of 24
lent by Division of Plants, number of 43
obtained from the allotment to the Museum by Congress 14
of Museum classified 6, 11
duplicate 6, 11
received during year, Department of Anthropology 26, 62
Biology 26, 79
Geology 26, 97
total number of, in possession of Museum at close of year, recorded by subjects, table showing 32
received in all the departments 26
Sponville, Juarez, collection of platiniferous rocks presented by 31, 97
Springer, Frank, material for study loaned to 44, 103
S. S. Howland Collection of Buddhist Religious Art in the National Museum, by Immanuel M. Casanowicz 735
St. Louis exhibit, summary of work done for 78
Staff, administrative, list 106
Museum, list 105
primary work of 33
scientific, list 105
Stanford University, fishes of Japan collected and described by Doctor Jordan and Mr. Snyder, presented by 83
Stanton, T. W., custodian, Mesozoic, Section of Invertebrate Fossils 106
Stanton, W. A., Philippine insects donated by 30, 84
Starks, Edwin Chapin, titles and notices of papers by 170, 171, 174, 180
State Department, material secured through representatives of 53
State surveys, fifth era of, or the era of national surveys 551
the era of 194
first decade 295
fourth decade 503
second decade 363
third decade 429
Statistician of the United States Bureau of Immigration, researches conducted by 39
Stearns, R. E. C., honorary associate in zoology 106
series of west American shells presented by 29, 83
title and notice of paper by 180
Stebbing, Thomas R. R., title and notice of paper by 180

Page.
Steele, Edward S., special attention given to genus laciniaria by 43
Steere, Joseph Beal, title and notice of paper by 50, 180
Stejneger, Leonhard, account of the herpetology of the Bahama Islands prepared by 40, 92
acted temporarily as head curator, Department of Biology 94
collection of reptiles from Japan worked up by 40
Texas identified by, in conjunction with Vernon Bailey 40
the Bahamas worked up by 40, 92
curator, Division of Reptiles and Batrachians 105
delegate to the International Congress of Zoology 45, 55, 94
detailed to make faunal collections in the Swiss and Italian Alps 79
general management of Department of Biology devolved upon 77
Herpetology of Porto Rico, published by 50, 92
papers by, printed in other publications than those of the Institution 51
report on the Fifth Zoological Congress, published by 40, 92
species of lizard described by 81
specimen of iguana described by 81
studies on the reptile fauna of eastern Asia continued by 41, 92
titles and notices of papers by 180
Stevenson, Mrs. Matilda Coxe, field work in the West carried on by 45
title and notice of paper by 180
Stewart, Alban, resignation of 56, 104
Stiles, Charles Wardell, custodian Section of Helminthological collections 106
delegate to the Sixth International Congress of Zoology 55
investigation of the hook-worm disease completed by 42, 94
"spotted fever" undertaken by 42, 94
papers relating to parasites published by 94
parts of an index catalogue of medical and veterinary zoology published by, in cooperation with Doctor Hassall 94
titles and notices of papers by 181
Stokes, H. N., specimens for study sent to 44
Stratigraphic Paleontology, Division of, progress in 104
routine work in 101
Stratton, S. W., material from Department of Anthropology loaned to 72
Strong, R. M., collection of birds consulted by 40, 90
Study series, Department of Biology, work on the 86
Summary of the operations of the year 21
Surplus material, distribution of 90
Swanton, J. R., field work in the West conducted by 45
Sweeny, Thomas W., care of the study series continued by 68
Swingle, W. T., custodian, Section of Higher Algæ 106
Taconic question, the 675
Tassin, Wirt, analyses made by 104
assistant curator, Division of Mineralogy 106
meteorite from Persimmon Creek, North Carolina, described by 44, 104
time spent by, in St. Louis installing exhibits 102

Page.
Tassin, Wirt, title and notice of paper by 181
Technological exhibits, increase in 28, 75
Temple drum, description of 744
lamps, description of 743
Thompson, J. C., collecting outfit supplied to 45
specimens of fishes from Puget Sound donated by 29, 82
Tonk, William, and Bro., serenato saxophone presented by 62
Townsend, Charles H., lecture on Exploration of the Deep Sea delivered by .. 48
Transfers and loans, Department of Anthropology 64
Trask, Mrs. Blanche, Californian shells presented by 29, 83
Treasury Department, original Francis life-saving car loaned to 72
special acknowledgments due to 53
True, Frederick W., curator, Division of Mammals 105
head curator, Department of Biology 105
monograph on the whalebone whales completed by 39, 92
papers on cetaceans published by 39
published by 50, 92
report on the Department of Biology for the year 1903–4 by 77
representative of Smithsonian Institution and National Museum on United States Government Board for Louisiana Purchase Exposition 53, 77
titles and notices of papers by 181
Tsuchida, T., collection of Japanese mammals purchased from 29, 82
Uhler, P. R., specimens of rhynchota loaned to 42, 89
Ulrich, E. O., collection, transferred by U. S. Geological Survey 31
papers completed by, in conjunction with R. S. Bassler 44, 104
title and notice of joint paper by 181, 182
Unger, C. W., collection of fossil plants donated by 32, 100
Upham, E. P., charge of cataloguing, division of prehistoric archeology 75
Vaughan, T. Wayland, custodian Madreporarian Corals, Section of Invertebrate Fossils 106
progress made by, in the study of madreporarian corals 42
titles and notices of papers by 182
Verner, Samuel P., collecting outfit supplied to 46
Verrill, A. E., specimens supplied to 43, 89
Vertebrate Paleontology, section of, accessions 32, 100
routine work in 101
Visitors 47
Voorhees, Miss, collections in Department of Anthropology examined by 39, 71
Walcott, Charles D., honorary curator, Division of Stratigraphic Paleontology. 106
Walker, B. E., gift received from 100
Walpole, F. A., notice of death of 95
War Department, Bureau of Ordnance, collection of firearms deposited by 28
objects of interest and value deposited by 53, 65
Ward, Lester F., associate curator, Section of Paleobotany 106
Washington Biologists' Field Club, collection of insects received from 30, 84
Waters, C. E., lecture delivered by 49
Watkins, J. Elfreth, biographical sketch of 56
reference to death of 56
Watkins, Thomas L., collections in applied geology studied by 44, 103
Wellauer, Emil, models of steamboat propellers purchased from 63

Page.
Wharton, J. R., specimens of smoky quartz donated by 31, 99
Whelpley, H. M., material in Department of Anthropology studied by 39
White, Charles A., honorary associate in Paleontology 106
White, David, custodian of Paleozoic Plants, Section of Paleobotany 106
title and notice of paper by 182
Whitman, C. O., collection of birds consulted by 40
Wickersham, James, customs of Indians of Alaska investigated by 39, 71
Wilcox, Timothy E., fossil skull secured through the efforts of 32
Wild Flower Preservation Society of America, lecture delivered by Dr. C. E. Waters under the auspices of 49
Wilder, Burt G., specimens of mammals sent to 40
Williams, Gardner F., gift to the Division of Geology from 31, 97
Williams, T. A., intention of, to transfer herbarium from George Washington University to the Museum 80
plants presented by 30, 80
Willis, Bailey, paper read by, at the Ninth International Geological Congress. 55
Willis, Richard, collecting outfit supplied to 46
Wilson, Charles Branch, siphonostoma sent to, for identification and report .. 89
specimens of parasitic copepods sent to 42, 43
title and notice of paper by 182
Wilson, Thomas, archeological collection purchased belonging to the estate of the late 26, 63
Wood, Miss Elvira, paper treating of the Middle Devonian crinoids, prepared by 44, 104
Woodbridge, Prof. S. Homer, services of, engaged to plan the mechanical equipment of new Museum building 13
Wooden carved figure holding gong, description of 744
Wooton, E. O., specimen of bat presented by 29, 81
Work of the year, Department of Anthropology 61
Biology 77
Geology 97
on the study series, Department of Biology 86
Yale Museum, gift from, through C. E. Beecher 32, 99
Young, Miss Mary Virginia, appointed clerk in office of acting head curator, Department of Anthropology 75
Zoological Museum, University of Copenhagen, Denmark, exchange received from 30, 46, 83, 99
specimens, number of additions to 28
total number received 79

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